

THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For JUNE, 1797.

Annals of Medicine, for the Year 1796. Exhibiting a concise View of the latest and most important Discoveries in Medicine and Medical Philosophy. By Andrew Duncan, Sen. M. D. and Andrew Duncan, Jun. M. D. Fellows of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh. Vol. I. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.

FOR the change of title in this useful periodical work, we can discover no very satisfactory reason; as in plan, arrangement, and execution, the present volume does not differ from those which have preceded it. The design of the editors is, however, thus expressed—

‘ A volume of the Annals of Medicine will now be published every year, on the 1st of January. The plan of this new work will not differ materially from that of the Medical Commentaries, of which it may be considered a continuation. But the editors flatter themselves, that, when peace shall again restore free intercourse among nations, the correspondence, they have established, will enable them to give a better account of foreign medical literature than the English reader has been hitherto accustomed to meet with.’
P. iii.

In the Analysis of medical books, which forms the first part of the work, we meet with a very full account of most of the valuable publications that have lately made their appearance on medical subjects in this country. Under the same head we have also remarked several important foreign tracts.

The second section contains such original observations on medical subjects, as the editors have thought worthy of a place in their collection.

The first affords a detail of some cases of biliary obstructions from calculi, where salivation seemed to be useful in removing the complaints. The histories of these cases were drawn up by Dr. Gibbons, who observes, that—

- CRIT. REV. VOL. XX. June, 1797. K ‘ Calomel

‘ Calomel has in biliary obstructions only been given as a deobstruent ; but’ (says he) ‘ I do not recollect, that intended salivation for the removal of biliary calculi has ever been recommended. I know that in the East Indies it is a common practice, for inflammations of the liver, after bleeding, to salivate as quickly as possible : but this is foreign to my purpose. I shall therefore proceed to a relation of such cases as I have treated successfully.’ P. 281.

The plan of cure inculcated by this physician would have been much less exposed to objection, if he had depended solely on mercury. Where other drugs are administered at the same time, it is impossible to estimate the utility of any particular remedy with precision. In the cases here recorded, not only mercury, but soap, aloes, rhubarb, and other substances, were exhibited. It is probable, however, that the chief advantage was derived from the mercury.

Dr. Hofack’s case of hydrocele shows the necessity of caution in the cure of that disease by injection. The observations of the same physician, on the use of calomel in cases of obstinate constipation of the bowels, are not uninteresting to the practitioner. They show the utility of a steady perseverance in such situations.

From the cases described by Dr. Crichton, and Dr. Macarty of Jamaica, no satisfactory conclusions can be drawn. They prove, indeed, that the system frequently undergoes remarkable and unexpected changes from the application of remedies ; but surely the occurrence of such alterations in one or two instances does not warrant their general utility.

The sixth article contains the history of a case of yellow fever, by Dr. Todd, in which the use of calomel seems to have been too long delayed. His reflections on this complaint are these—

‘ The observation of the first importance in this disease, respects the affection of the stomach in an unusual and peculiar manner, indicating that organ to be the principal seat of the complaint ; for it is a fact a thousand times experienced, that calomel has been given to the amount of five or six hundred grains, without displaying any action on the stomach or intestines, though, during that period, the usual dose of any purgative medicine has succeeded in its common operation. It has also been observed, in almost every case, that where the mercurial has affected the salivary glands, and produced ptyalism, the patient has recovered. On every occasion where I have seen the Peruvian bark given, it has invariably increased the irritation of the stomach, the heat, and the quickness of the pulse : and when it has been introduced into the intestines by injection, considerable tumefaction and pain about the navel has taken place ; and, in some cases, a total stoppage of the urine.

‘ After

'After a salivation has succeeded the use of calomel, the Peruvian bark is generally given with success, to restore the tone of the stomach, and to restrain the discharge from the mouth. The cold-bath has been lately tried without success. Blood-letting, which excited so much discussion, and had so many advocates in consequence of the temporary abatement of the general symptoms, is now very nearly abandoned; nor was it relinquished by its supporters, but on the most complete proofs of its fatal effects. Indeed, the minds of medical men appear now to be made up as to the most proper treatment of this fever; and in mercury is placed their dependence.' P. 340.

The case recorded by Dr. Shee is by no means satisfactory; there was evidently a complication of disorders. The evidence, therefore, which it affords of the superior advantage of the author's mode of curing diabetes by the use of camphor and antispasmodic remedies, is only of the presumptive kind. His plan of treatment must be employed under circumstances of greater certainty in respect to the nature of the disease, before its utility can be fairly appreciated.

Dr. Borthwick's account of the fatal effects of a plumb-stone, which in swallowing was forced into the trachea, is well drawn up; and the author's remarks are judicious. Little, however, can be done in such cases, except the exact situation of the extraneous body can be ascertained; which, in the present instance, seems to have been a matter of great uncertainty, until shown by dissection.

The histories of the cases of injury done to the anterior parts of the brain, by Dr. Scott, show, with many others in books of surgery, that that organ can sustain considerable mischief in some instances, without any pernicious effects being experienced.

Dr. Wilson's case is singular, but affords nothing useful to the views of the practitioner. The fact of a nail remaining in the stomach nearly fifteen months, was, however, deserving of being recorded in such a collection as the present.

The third section, as usual, comprehends 'Medical News.' Under this head, the editors have introduced a portion of curious and interesting matter. The remarks of Mr. Scott on the use of the nitric acid are of this kind. 'If they be confirmed by the experience of others' (say the editors) 'the nitric acid will afford a most valuable remedy for combating diseases, against which the remedies commonly employed are often attended with so much inconvenience.'

On the use of this powerful acid, we have the following introductory reflections—

'It is acknowledged, that all the calces of mercury which are
K 2 used

used in medicine, contain a quantity of pure air; but I know of no direct experiment having been hitherto made, to prove that the effect of mercury in diseases of the liver, or in other maladies, depends on this principle, and not on the metal itself. The experiments, that I had made on the base of the bile, inclined me to wish to take myself a quantity of pure air, united to some substance for which it has no great attraction. I reflected on the different ways that are employed by chemists to oxygenate inanimate matter; for I believed, that the same chemical attractions would produce a similar effect in the living body, although they might be disturbed in their operation by the vitality of the machine, and the variety of the principles of which it is composed.

‘ The nitric acid, as may be supposed, was one of the first substances that occurred to me as fit for my purpose; for it is known to contain about four parts of vital air, united to one of azote, with a certain proportion of water. These principles can be separated from each other by the intervention of many other bodies, as chemists find every day in their operations. I was led, besides, to give a preference to the nitric acid, from observing, that it dissolves very completely the resinous base of the bile. I have since found, that the celebrated M. Fourcroy had made the same observation before me.’ P. 377.

After consulting such accounts of the effects of this remedy on the human body, as could be procured, the writer ventured upon its use himself, and seems to have been qualified to judge of its effects, from being affected with a diseased state of the liver. This is the journal of the effects it produced on himself—

‘ In September 1793, I began to take the nitric acid. I mixed about a dram of the strongest that I could procure, with a sufficient quantity of water; and I was happy to find, that I could finish that quantity in the course of a few hours, without any disagreeable effects from it. The following is the journal that I kept of myself at the time.

‘ 11th September, 1st day. Took at different times about a dram of strong nitric acid, diluted with water. Soon after drinking it, I feel a sense of a warmth in my stomach and chest; but I find no disagreeable sensation from it, nor any other material effect.

‘ 2d. I have taken to-day a considerable quantity of acid, diluted with water, as much as I could easily drink during the forenoon.

‘ 3d. I have continued the acid. I feel my gums affected from it, and they are somewhat red, and enlarged between the teeth. I slept ill; but could lie for a length of time on my left side, which, from some disease in my liver, had not been the case for many months before. I perceive a pain in the back of my head,

head, resembling what I have commonly felt when taking mercury.

' 4th. My gums are a little tender. I continue the acid as before. I still find a pain in my head, and about my jaws, like what arises from mercury. I perceive no symptoms of my liver-complaint.

' 5th. I have taken the acid; and always feel an agreeable sense of heat after drinking it. I spit more than usual.

' 6th. I continue the acid. I observe my mouth sorer to-day, and spit more.

' 7th. I think I am now sufficiently oxygenated. I feel my mouth so troublesome, that I shall take no more acid.

' From this time my mouth got gradually well, and I found my health considerably improved.' P. 379.

On its power of removing those symptoms of syphilis that so frequently baffle the efforts of practitioners, we shall introduce the following observations—

' It was administered,' (says the author) ' at my desire, by my friend Mr. Anderson, surgeon of the 77th regiment, to a person who had a headach that came on every night, and which had long been suspected to arise from lues. He had taken several courses of mercury on this account, which carried away all the uneasy symptoms; but they as constantly returned after a certain period. On using the acid for about a fortnight, he got perfectly free from his headach, and he remained very well for a few months, as was usual to him after mercury.

' I have now had a pretty extensive experience of the good effects of the nitric acid in syphilis; and I have reason to believe, that it is not in general less effectual than mercury in removing that disease in all its forms, and in every stage of its continuance. I think that in some cases it has even superior powers; for I have succeeded completely with the acid, when mercury, administered both in this country * and in Europe for years together, had failed of success. We appear to be able to carry the degree of oxygenation of the body to a greater length by means of the nitric acid, and to continue it longer than we can do by mercury.

' A mass of mercury, in the circulation, produces many disagreeable effects, that make it often necessary to give over its use before it has answered its intention: but the nitric acid may be taken a long time without any material injury to the health; nor are its effects on the mouth, in producing inflammation, and a flow of saliva, so disagreeable as from mercury.

' A man could hardly offer to his species a greater blessing than a new remedy against any of the host of diseases that assail us: but

* Hindostan. REV.

the reputation of specifics, with the exception of a few instances, has arisen only from the weakness of the human mind. Am I too deceiving myself, and attempting to lead others into error?

'As the acid that I distil is not strong, and is of unequal strength at different times, I am regulated chiefly by the taste in giving it. I put half or three fourths of a Madeira glassful of it in two pints of water, or I make two pints of water as acid as it can well be drunk. This quantity is finished every twenty four hours, taking about a Madeira glassful only at a time.

'I have sometimes removed syphilitic symptoms with the acid in five days; more commonly, I think, they give way in a fortnight; but sometimes, though seldom, they continue for twenty days without any apparent relief. I must confess, that in some cases I have failed altogether; but in those cases, mercury had long been given to little purpose; the bones were highly diseased, and the habit probably of a peculiar kind. I have cured syphilis with the acid, under a variety of forms, where no other remedy had ever been employed, and for above two years I have seen no relapse in those cases. I have administered it against the primary symptoms of the disease, and I have given it for exostoses, for carious bones, for nocturnal pains, for eruptions and ulcers of the skin, and for all the train of misery that is attendant on lues. I have the pleasure to see, that several of my friends have begun to use the nitric acid in syphilis, and in other diseases. An account of their experience, which every body will esteem the most respectable authority, will make the subject of a future paper.' p. 383.

We have been thus full in our account of this discovery, because, if it should be found by future experience to be founded on fact, it must prove of great importance to the profession. It is necessary, however, to observe that we have here no information respecting the effects which it produced on the stomach, bowels, &c. though we suspect it must act powerfully on these parts, even when much diluted.

We also meet with useful and curious observations in some other articles under this head. Those of Dr. Brodbelt on the oxygen gas contained in the air-bladders of the sword-fish, as well as Mr. Kellie's on the anatomy of the shark, are deserving of attention.

On the whole, we have no doubt but that the present work will be found a useful and convenient vehicle of medical information; though, as a publication dignified with the title of '*Annals of Medicine*,' we must confess that we expected something more,

A Journey from Prince of Wales's Fort in Hudson's Bay, to the Northern Ocean. Undertaken by Order of the Hudson's Bay Company, for the Discovery of Copper Mines, a North West Passage, &c. In the Years 1769, 1770, 1771, and 1772. By Samuel Hearne. 4to. 1l. 7s. Cadell and Davies. 1795.

OUR ears are repeatedly stunned with the praises of savage life : and the admirers of the state of nature, as it is foolishly called, take pleasure in contrasting the defects of civilisation with the little solid comfort to be found in their favourite state of independence. Few of these encomiums are founded on an accurate examination of facts. It is a work of labour to peruse the history of mankind in different parts of the world. The liberty of a roaming Indian is sufficient to fill up a volume, without entering into the question of the inconveniences he sustains from want of food,—from illness,—from wounds. To give our readers a true insight into the so-much-praised savage state, the work before us is particularly calculated ; it aims at no graces of style, no ornaments of composition or language. The author now and then attempts to philosophise, but with no great success ; and his excellence consists in giving us a plain narration of incidents during a long journey in the wildest part of North America. The object was to serve a commercial company : but if that has not been attained, all who are desirous of becoming acquainted with savage manners, will be pleased with the description given of them by a person who had the best means of gaining a complete insight into the life of a North American.

A few extracts will, we are convinced, be entertaining to our readers. In the first expedition, our author failed : and from the causes assigned for this failure, by Matonabee, a great leader, the fair sex will not join in the encomiums bestowed on uncivilisation.

‘ During my conversation with this leader, he asked me very seriously, If I would attempt another journey for the discovery of the copper-mines ? And on my answering in the affirmative, provided I could get better guides than I had hitherto been furnished with, he said he would readily engage in that service, provided the governor at the fort would employ him. In answer to this, I assured him his offer would be gladly accepted ; and as I had already experienced every hardship that was likely to accompany any future trial, I was determined to complete the discovery, even at the risque of life itself. Matonabee assured me, that by the accounts received from his own countrymen, the Southern Indians, and myself, it was very probable I might not experience so much hardship during the whole journey, as I had already felt, though scarcely advanced one third part of the journey.

‘ He attributed all our misfortunes to the misconduct of my guides, and the very plan we pursued, by the desire of the governor, in not taking any women with us on this journey, was, he said, the principal thing that occasioned all our wants: “ for, said he, when all the men are heavy laden, they can neither hunt nor travel to any considerable distance; and in case they meet with success in hunting, who is to carry the produce of their labour? Women, added he, were made for labour; one of them can carry, or haul, as much as two men can do. They also pitch our tents, make and mend our clothing, keep us warm at night; and, in fact, there is no such thing as travelling any considerable distance, or for any length of time, in this country, without their assistance.” “ Women, said he again, though they do every thing, are maintained at a trifling expence; for as they always stand cook, the very licking of their fingers in scarce times, is sufficient for their subsistence.” This, however odd it may appear, is but too true a description of the situation of women in this country: it is at least so in appearance; for the women always carry the provisions, and it is more than probable they help themselves when the men are not present.’ P. 54.

From such conduct to their women, we cannot expect either much refinement of manners in the one, or beauty in the other sex; and the following description of the latter fully answered our expectations—

‘ From these Indians Matonabee purchased another wife; so that he had now no less than seven, most of whom would for size have made good grenadiers. He prided himself much in the height and strength of his wives, and would frequently say, few women would carry or haul heavier loads; and though they had, in general, a very masculine appearance, yet he preferred them to those of a more delicate form and moderate stature. In a country like this, where a partner in excessive hard labour is the chief motive for the union, and the softer endearments of a conjugal life are only considered as a secondary object, there seems to be great propriety in such a choice; but if all the men were of this way of thinking, what would become of the greater part of the women, who in general are but of low stature, and many of them of a most delicate make, though not of the exactest proportion, or most beautiful mould? Take them in a body, the women are as destitute of real beauty as any nation I ever saw, though there are some few of them, when young, who are tolerable; but the care of a family, added to their constant hard labour, soon make the most beautiful among them look old and wrinkled, even before they are thirty; and several of the more ordinary ones at that age are perfect antidotes to love and gallantry. This, however, does not render them less dear and valuable to their owners, which is a lucky circumstance

stance for those women, and a certain proof that there is no such thing as any rule or standard for beauty. Ask a Northern Indian, what is beauty? he will answer, a broad flat face, small eyes, high cheek-bones, three or four broad black lines a-cross each cheek, a low forehead, a large broad chin, a clumsy hook-nose, a tawney hide, and breasts hanging down to the belt. Those beauties are greatly heightened, or at least rendered more valuable, when the possessor is capable of dressing all kinds of skins, converting them into the different parts of their clothing, and able to carry eight or ten stone * in summer, or haul a much greater weight in winter. These, and other similar accomplishments, are all that are sought after, or expected, of a Northern Indian woman. As to their temper, it is of little consequence; for the men have a wonderful facility in making the most stubborn comply with as much alacrity as could possibly be expected from those of the mildest and most obliging turn of mind; so that the only real difference is, the one obeys through fear, and the other complies cheerfully from a willing mind; both knowing that what is commanded must be done. They are, in fact, all kept at a great distance, and the rank they hold in the opinion of the men cannot be better expressed or explained, than by observing the method of treating or serving them at meals, which would appear very humiliating, to an European woman, though custom makes it sit light on those whose lot it is to bear it. It is necessary to observe, that when the men kill any large beast, the women are always sent to bring it to the tent: when it is brought there, every operation it undergoes, such as splitting, drying, pounding, &c. is performed by the women. When any thing is to be prepared for eating, it is the women who cook it; and when it is done, the wives and daughters of the greatest captains in the country are never served, till all the males, even those who are in the capacity of servants, have eaten what they think proper; and in times of scarcity it is frequently their lot to be left without a single morsel. It is, however, natural to think they take the liberty of helping themselves in secret; but this must be done with great prudence, as capital embezzlements of provisions in such times are looked on as affairs of real consequence, and frequently subject them to a very severe beating. If they are practised by a woman whose youth and inattention to domestic concerns cannot plead in her favour, they will for ever be a blot in her character, and few men will chuse to have her for a wife.' P. 83.

The feelings of the savages towards sick persons may be known from the following extracts—

‘ Having finished such wood-work as the Indians thought would be necessary, and having augmented our stock of dried meat and fat, the twenty-first was appointed for moving; but one of the wo-

* ‘ The stone here meant is fourteen pounds.’

men

men having been taken in labour, and it being rather an extraordinary case, we were detained more than two days. The instant, however, the poor woman was delivered, which was not until she had suffered all the pains usually felt on those occasions for near fifty-two hours, the signal was made for moving, when the poor creature took her infant on her back and set out with the rest of the company; and though another person had the humanity to haul her sledge for her, (for one day only,) she was obliged to carry a considerable load beside her little charge, and was frequently obliged to wade knee-deep in water and wet snow. Her very looks, exclusive of her moans, were a sufficient proof of the great pain she endured, insomuch that although she was a person I greatly disliked, her distress at this time so overcame my prejudice, that I never felt more for any of her sex in my life; indeed her sighs pierced me to the soul, and rendered me very miserable, as it was not in my power to relieve her.' P. 91.

At another place a sick woman is left behind—

'One of the Indian's wives, who for some time had been in a consumption, had for a few days past become so weak as to be incapable of travelling, which, among those people, is the most deplorable state to which a human being can possibly be brought. Whether she had been given over by the doctors, or that it was for want of friends among them, I cannot tell, but certain it is, that no expedients were taken for her recovery; so that, without much ceremony, she was left unassisted, to perish above-ground.

'Though this was the first instance of the kind I had seen, it is the common, and indeed the constant practice of those Indians; for when a grown person is so ill, especially in the summer, as not to be able to walk, and too heavy to be carried, they say it is better to leave one who is past recovery, than for the whole family to sit down by them and starve to death; well knowing that they cannot be of any service to the afflicted. On those occasions, therefore, the friends or relations of the sick generally leave them some victuals and water; and, if the situation of the place will afford it, a little firing. When those articles are provided, the person to be left is acquainted with the road which the others intend to go; and then, after covering them well up with deer skins, &c. they take their leave, and walk away crying.

'Sometimes persons thus left, recover; and come up with their friends, or wander about till they meet with other Indians, whom they accompany till they again join their relations. Instances of this kind are seldom known. The poor woman above mentioned, however, came up with us three several times, after having been left in the manner described. At length, poor creature! she dropt behind, and no one attempted to go back in search of her.

'A custom apparently so unnatural is perhaps not to be found among any other of the human race; if properly considered, however,

ever, it may with justice be ascribed to necessity and self-preservation, rather than to the want of humanity and social feeling, which ought to be the characteristic of men, as the noblest part of the creation. Necessity, added to national custom, contributes principally to make scenes of this kind less shocking to those people, than they must appear to the more civilized part of mankind.' P. 202.

Reverence to the aged is a beautiful part of civilisation: mark the contrast in the savage state—

' Old age is the greatest calamity that can befall a Northern Indian; for when he is past labour, he is neglected, and treated with great disrespect, even by his own children. They not only serve him last at meals, but generally give him the coarsest and worst of the victuals: and such of the skins as they do not chuse to wear, are made up in the clumsiest manner into clothing for their aged parents; who, as they had, in all probability, treated their fathers and mothers with the same neglect, in their turns, submitted patiently to their lot, even without a murmur, knowing it to be the common misfortune attendant on old age; so that they may be said to wait patiently for the melancholy hour when, being no longer capable of walking, they are to be left alone, to starve, and perish for want. This, however shocking and unnatural it may appear, is nevertheless so common, that, among those people, one half at least of the aged persons of both sexes absolutely die in this miserable condition.' P. 345.

Hence we are not to be surprised at this remark from our author—

' I never saw a set of people that possessed so little humanity, or that could view the distresses of their fellow-creatures with so little feeling and unconcern; for though they seem to have a great affection for their wives and children, yet they will laugh at and ridicule the distress of every other person who is not immediately related to them.' P. 51.

Murder, however, is, it seems, in some cases, held dishonourable—

' Notwithstanding the Northern Indians are so covetous, and pay so little regard to private property as to take every advantage of bodily strength to rob their neighbours, not only of their goods, but their wives, yet they are, in other respects, the mildest tribe, or nation, that is to be found on the borders of Hudson's Bay: for let their affronts or losses be ever so great, they will never seek any other revenge than that of wrestling. As for murder, which is so common among all the tribes of Southern Indians, it is seldom heard of among them. A murderer is shunned and detested by all the tribe, and is obliged to wander up and down, forlorn and forsaken even

even by his own relations and former friends. In that respect a murderer may be truly compared to Cain, after he had killed his brother Abel. The cool reception he meets with by all who know him, occasions him to grow melancholy, and he never leaves any place but the whole company say, "There goes the murderer!" The women, it is true, sometimes receive an unlucky blow from their husbands for misbehaviour, which occasions their death; but this is thought nothing of: and for one man or woman to kill another out of revenge, or through jealousy, or on any other account, is so extraordinary, that very few are now existing who have been guilty of it. At the present moment I know not one, beside Matonabee, who ever made an attempt of that nature; and he is, in every other respect, a man of such universal good sense, and, as an Indian, of such great humanity, that I am at a loss how to account for his having been guilty of such a crime, unless it be by his having lived among the Southern Indians so long, as to become tainted with their blood-thirsty, revengeful, and vindictive disposition.' p. 108.

This Matonabee is the author's favourite: and besides pummelling one of his wives to death, he stabbed the husband of another woman several times, and made no scruple to be in a party with his brethren to assassinate a company of a different tribe, sleeping quietly in their huts.

The profusion of the rich, in civilised life, is often and deservedly cried out against: but it bears no proportion to that of the savages. A savage family frequently *wastes* more in one day, than the richest family in London or Paris does in a dozen years. Of this we have had frequent proofs in the narration of this journey.

'We crossed' (says Mr. Hearne) 'several lakes on the ice; of which Thoy-noy-kyed Lake and Thoy-coy-lyned Lake were the principal. We also crossed a few inconsiderable creeks and rivers, which were only useful as they furnished a small supply of fish to the natives. The weather, as I have before observed, was in general disagreeable, with a great deal of rain or snow. To make up for that inconvenience, however, the deer were so plentiful, that the Indians killed not only a sufficient quantity for our daily support, but frequently great numbers merely for the fat, marrow, and tongues. To induce them to desist from this practice, I often interested myself, and endeavoured, as much as possible, to convince them in the clearest terms of which I was master, of the great impropriety of such waste; particularly at a time of the year when their skins could not be of any use for clothing, and when the anxiety to proceed on our journey would not permit us to stay long enough in one place to eat up half the spoils of their hunting. As national customs, however, are not easily overcome, my remonstrances proved ineffectual; and I was always answered, that it was certainly right to kill
plenty,

plenty, and live on the best, when and where it was to be got, for that it would be impossible to do it where every thing was scarce: and they insisted on it, that killing plenty of deer and other game in one part of the country, could never make them scarce in another. Indeed, they were so accustomed to kill every thing that came within their reach, that few of them could pass by a small bird's nest, without slaying the young ones, or destroying the eggs.'
P. 117.

But if savage life is attended with so many inconveniences, we must not deny that there are cases in which the habits of a roaming Indian will be found advantageous: and we suspect that very few, if any, of our countrymen could have exerted, in a desert wild, so much fortitude and ingenuity as the savage woman whose singular adventures are given in the following extract—

' On the eleventh of January, as some of my companions were hunting, they saw the track of a strange snow-shoe, which they followed; and at a considerable distance came to a little hut, where they discovered a young woman sitting alone. As they found that she understood their language, they brought her with them to the tents. On examination, she proved to be one of the Western Dog-ribbed Indians, who had been taken prisoner by the Athapuscow Indians in the summer of one thousand seven hundred and seventy; and in the following summer, when the Indians that took her prisoner were near this part, she had eloped from them, with an intent to return to her own country; but the distance being so great, and having, after she was taken prisoner, been carried in a canoe the whole way, the turnings and windings of the rivers and lakes were so numerous, that she forgot the track; so she built the hut in which we found her, to protect her from the weather during the winter, and here she had resided from the first setting in of the fall.

' From her account of the moons past since her elopement, it appeared that she had been near seven months without seeing a human face; during all which time she had supported herself very well by snaring partridges, rabbits, and squirrels; she had also killed two or three beaver, and some porcupines. That she did not seem to have been in want is evident, as she had a small stock of provisions by her when she was discovered; and was in good health and condition, and I think one of the finest women, of a real Indian, that I have seen in any part of North America.

' The methods practised by this poor creature to procure a livelihood were truly admirable, and are great proofs that necessity is the real mother of invention. When the few deer-sinews that she had an opportunity of taking with her were all expended in making snares, and sewing her clothing, she had nothing to supply their place

place but the sinews of the rabbits legs and feet; these she twisted together for that purpose with great dexterity and success. The rabbits, &c. which she caught in those snares, not only furnished her with a comfortable subsistence, but of the skins she made a suit of neat and warm clothing for the winter. It is scarcely possible to conceive that a person in her forlorn situation could be so composed as to be capable of contriving or executing any thing that was not absolutely necessary to her existence; but there were sufficient proofs that she had extended her care much farther, as all her clothing, beside being calculated for real service, shewed great taste, and exhibited no little variety of ornament. The materials, though rude, were very curiously wrought, and so judiciously placed, as to make the whole of her garb have a very pleasing, though rather romantic appearance.

‘ Her leisure hours from hunting had been employed in twisting the inner rind or bark of willows into small lines, like net-twine, of which she had some hundred fathoms by her; with this she intended to make a fishing-net as soon as the spring advanced. It is of the inner bark of willows, twisted in this manner, that the Dog-ribbed Indians make their fishing-nets; and they are much preferable to those made by the Northern Indians.

‘ Five or six inches of an iron hoop, made into a knife, and the shank of an arrow-head of iron, which served her as an awl, were all the metals this poor woman had with her when she eloped; and with these implements she had made herself complete snow-shoes, and several other useful articles.

‘ Her method of making a fire was equally singular and curious, having no other materials for that purpose than two hard sulphurous stones. These, by long friction and hard knocking, produced a few sparks, which at length communicated to some touchwood; but as this method was attended with great trouble, and not always with success, she did not suffer her fire to go out all the winter. Hence we may conclude that she had no idea of producing fire by friction, in the manner practised by the Esquimaux, and many other uncivilised nations; because if she had, the above-mentioned precaution would have been unnecessary.

‘ The singularity of the circumstance, the comeliness of her person, and her approved accomplishments, occasioned a strong contest between several of the Indians of my party, who should have her for a wife; and the poor girl was actually won and lost at wrestling by near half a score different men the same evening. My guide, Matonabee, who at that time had no less than seven wives, all women grown, besides a young girl of eleven or twelve years old, would have put in for the prize also, had not one of his wives made him ashamed of it, by telling him that he had already more wives than he could properly attend. This piece of satire, however true, proved fatal to the poor girl who dared to make so open a declaration;

claration; for the great man, Matonabee, who would willingly have been thought equal to eight or ten men in every respect, took it as such an affront, that he fell on her with both hands and feet, and bruised her to such a degree, that after lingering some time she died.

‘ When the Athapuscow Indians took the above Dog-ribbed Indian woman prisoner, they, according to the universal custom of those savages, surprised her and her party in the night, and killed every soul in the tent, except herself and three other young women. Among those whom they killed, were her father, mother, and husband. Her young child, four or five months old, she concealed in a bundle of clothing, and took with her undiscovered in the night; but when she arrived at the place where the Athapuscow Indians had left their wives, (which was not far distant,) they began to examine her bundle, and finding the child, one of the women took it from her, and killed it on the spot.

‘ This last piece of barbarity gave her such a disgust to those Indians, that notwithstanding the man who took care of her treated her in every respect as his wife, and was, she said, remarkably kind to, and even fond of her; so far was she from being able to reconcile herself to any of the tribe, that she rather chose to expose herself to misery and want, than live in ease and affluence among persons who had so cruelly murdered her infant. The poor woman’s relation of this shocking story, which she delivered in a very affecting manner, only excited laughter among the savages of my party.

‘ In a conversation with this woman afterward, she told us, that her country lies so far to the westward, that she had never seen iron, or any other kind of metal, till she was taken prisoner. All of her tribe, she observed, made their hatchets and ice-chisfels of deer’s horns, and their knives of stones and bones; that their arrows were shod with a kind of slate, bones, and deer’s horns; and the instruments which they employed to make their wood-work were nothing but beavers’ teeth. Though they had frequently heard of the useful materials which the nations or tribes to the east of them were supplied with from the English, so far were they from drawing nearer, to be in the way of trading for iron-work, &c. that they were obliged to retreat farther back, to avoid the Athapuscow Indians, who made surprising slaughter among them, both in winter and summer.’ P. 262.

Our readers, we are persuaded, must now smile at the fanciful descriptions of the state of nature: bad as we may be, and absurd and ridiculous as many of our customs are, we are still happily removed from the barbarity of savage manners. But we must confess ourselves a little disappointed when we found the brute creation deprived of some little pre-eminence
to

to which a part of it has been accustomed; and the beaver, like the ant, must be content with the praises bestowed on it in fable. It is right that our prejudices should be removed; and we attended peculiarly to our author's account of the beaver—

‘ Those who have undertaken to describe the inside of beaver-houses, as having several apartments appropriated to various uses; such as eating, sleeping, store-houses for provisions, and one for their natural occasions, &c. must have been very little acquainted with the subject; or, which is still worse, guilty of attempting to impose on the credulous, by representing the greatest falsehoods as real facts. Many years constant residence among the Indians, during which I had an opportunity of seeing several hundreds of those houses, has enabled me to affirm that every thing of the kind is entirely void of truth; for, notwithstanding the sagacity of those animals, it has never been observed that they aim at any other conveniencies in their houses, than to have a dry place to lie on; and there they usually eat their victuals, which they occasionally take out of the water.

‘ It frequently happens, that some of the large houses are found to have one or more partitions, if they deserve that appellation; but that is no more than a part of the main building, left by the sagacity of the beaver to support the roof. On such occasions it is common for those different apartments, as some are pleased to call them, to have no communication with each other but by water; so that in fact they may be called double or treble houses, rather than different apartments of the same house. I have seen a large beaver house built in a small island, that had near a dozen apartments under one roof: and, two or three of these only excepted, none of them had any communication with each other but by water. As there were beaver enough to inhabit each apartment, it is more than probable that each family knew its own, and always entered at their own door, without having any farther connection with their neighbours than a friendly intercourse; and to join their united labours in erecting their separate habitations, and building their dams where required. It is difficult to say whether their interest on other occasions was any ways reciprocal. The Indians of my party killed twelve old beaver, and twenty-five young and half-grown ones out of the house above mentioned; and on examination found that several had escaped their vigilance, and could not be taken but at the expence of more trouble than would be sufficient to take double the number in a less difficult situation.

‘ Travellers who assert that the beaver have two doors to their houses, one on the land-side, and the other next the water, seem to be less acquainted with those animals than others who assign them an elegant suite of apartments. Such a proceeding would be quite
contrary

contrary to their manner of life, and at the same time would render their houses of no use, either to protect them from their enemies, or guard them against the extreme cold in winter.

‘ The quiquehatches, or wolvereens, are great enemies to the beaver; and if there were a passage into their houses on the land-side, would not leave one of them alive where-ever they came.

‘ I cannot refrain from smiling, when I read the accounts of different authors who have written on the œconomy of those animals, as there seems to be a contest between them, who shall most exceed in fiction. But the compiler of the Wonders of Nature and Art seems, in my opinion, to have succeeded best in this respect; as he has not only collected all the fictions into which other writers on the subject have run, but has so greatly improved on them, that little remains to be added to his account of the beaver, beside a vocabulary of their language, a code of their laws, and a sketch of their religion, to make it the most complete natural history of that animal which can possibly be offered to the public.

‘ There cannot be a greater imposition, or indeed a grosser insult, on common understanding, than the wish to make us believe the stories of some of the works ascribed to the beaver; and though it is not to be supposed that the compiler of a general work can be intimately acquainted with every subject of which it may be necessary to treat, yet a very moderate share of understanding is surely sufficient to guard him against giving credit to such marvellous tales, however smoothly they may be told, or however boldly they may be asserted, by the romancing traveller.

‘ To deny that the beaver is possessed of a very considerable degree of sagacity, would be as absurd in me, as it is in those authors who think they cannot allow them too much. I shall willingly grant them their full share; but it is impossible for any one to conceive how, or by what means, a beaver, whose full height when standing erect does not exceed two feet and a half, or three feet at most, and whose fore-paws are not much larger than a half-crown piece, can “drive stakes as thick as a man’s leg into the ground three or four feet deep.” Their “wattling those stakes with twigs,” is equally absurd; and their “plaistering the inside of their houses with a composition of mud and straw, and swimming with mud and stones on their tails,” are still more incredible. The form and size of the animal, notwithstanding all its sagacity, will not admit of its performing such feats; and it would be as impossible for a beaver to use its tail as a trowel, except on the surface of the ground on which it walks, as it would have been for sir James Thornhill to have painted the dome of St. Paul’s cathedral without the assistance of scaffolding. The joints of their tail will not admit of their turning it over their backs on any occasion whatever, as it has a natural inclination to bend downwards; and it is not without some considerable

CRIT. REV. VOL. XX. *June*, 1797. L siderable

siderable exertion that they can keep it from trailing on the ground. This being the case, they cannot sit erect like a squirrel, which is their common posture; particularly when eating, or when they are cleaning themselves, as a cat or squirrel does, without having their tails bent forward between their legs; and which may not improperly be called their trencher.

‘ So far are the beaver from driving stakes into the ground when building their houses, that they lay most of the wood crosswise, and nearly horizontal, and without any other order than that of leaving a hollow or cavity in the middle; when any unnecessary branches project inward, they cut them off with their teeth, and throw them in among the rest, to prevent the mud from falling through the roof. It is a mistaken notion, that the wood-work is first completed and then plaistered; for the whole of their houses, as well as their dams, are from the foundation one mass of wood and mud, mixed with stones, if they can be procured. The mud is always taken from the edge of the bank, or the bottom of the creek or pond, near the door of the house; and though their fore-paws are so small, yet it is held close up between them, under their throat, that they carry both mud and stones; while they always drag the wood with their teeth.

‘ All their work is executed in the night; and they are so expeditious in completing it, that in the course of one night I have known them to have collected as much mud at their houses as to have amounted to some thousands of their little handfuls; and when any mixture of grass or straw has appeared in it, it has been, most assuredly, mere chance, owing to the nature of the ground from which they had taken it. As to their designedly making a composition for that purpose, it is entirely void of truth.

‘ It is a great piece of policy in those animals, to cover, or plaister, as it is usually called, the outside of their houses every fall with fresh mud, and as late as possible in the autumn, even when the frost becomes pretty severe; as by this means it soon freezes as hard as a stone, and prevents their common enemy, the quiquehatch, from disturbing them during the winter. And as they are frequently seen to walk over their work, and sometimes to give a flap with their tail, particularly when plunging into the water, this has, without doubt, given rise to the vulgar opinion that they use their tails as a trowel, with which they plaister their houses; whereas that flapping of the tail is no more than a custom, which they always preserve, even when they become tame and domestic, and more particularly so when they are startled.’ p. 229.

From these extracts our readers will judge what they may expect from the perusal of the work itself. The manners of the savages are well delineated; the animals and birds which inhabit the high northern latitudes, are well described; a very good

good account is given of the country, as well as it could be done by a person not having any good means of measuring distances: and we recommend the work to all persons of leisure who are fond of books of voyages and travels.

A Critical and Practical Elucidation of the Morning and Evening Prayer of the Church of England. By John Shepherd, M. A. &c. &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Faulder. 1796.

PREFIXED to this work is a judicious account of the reforms made in the public liturgies at different periods. In general, the author is correct in his statements: at times we could have wished him to be more particular. Thus, no one could have determined the question better than himself, of the relation which the present prayer-book stands in, to the mass-book of the church of Rome: yet to the account of mattins is subjoined the following note—

‘ Dr. Bennet, who has calculated “ what quantity of our several offices is taken from Popish liturgies,” (under which appellation I presume we must include the Offices of Sarum, and of the Gallican church, as well as of the Romish,) informs us, that, setting aside whatever is borrowed from the scripture, the Apocrypha, or the fathers of the first four centuries “ there remains in the Morning Prayer about one fourteenth part.” The accuracy of all his calculations I undertake not to warrant.’ p. xxii.

No one who knows any thing of the matter will warrant such a calculation: and we rather expected from our author, that, instead of his indifferent negation, he would have said plainly that the calculation was not entitled to any authority.

It is a singular circumstance, not generally known, that the use of the prayer-book is independent of the hierarchy (a term improperly used by our author), and that it rested originally solely upon the authority of laymen. The bill for the uniformity of common prayer was passed against the consent of all the spiritual lords in the house; and on this account the usual form of ‘ assent of the lords spiritual and temporal,’ was omitted. This circumstance is noted by our author, and is a strong proof of his impartiality, against which he is very seldom found to infringe: and the famous conference in Charles the Second’s time, with a view to the reformation of the liturgy, is in particular very well described. The frivolity of some objections made by the Puritans, and the stiff opposition of the established divines to some easy amendments, are equally reprobated.

In the Elucidation, we discover a great fund of ecclesiastical
L 2 knowledge:

knowledge: but some questions are not treated with the complete investigation of which the author seems capable. We allude particularly to what he says on the doxology, and on the creeds. On the doxology, which he thinks is borrowed from our Saviour's last directions to the apostles on baptism, he leaves us to rest on the authority of Basil for its apostolical origin. If no better authority can be given, we may well scruple to allow it so great antiquity. Polycarp's prayer will not, in this instance, bear us out: and we recommend to our author, in his next edition, to make no comment from Irenæus, Barnabas, Clement, Polycarp, or the Constitutions, without informing his readers what weight they are allowed to have by good judges in this or any other controversy.

‘ However differently the hymn may have been expressed, this we may assert, that the use of it has been universal in the church of Christ. The ancients concluded prayers often, and sermons always, with a doxology. From Cassian, the disciple and strenuous defender of Chrysostom, we learn, that the Greeks repeated *Gloria Patri* after the last psalm.—In all the western churches, that of Rome excepted, it was uniformly used at the end of every psalm. This is the path in which the church of England walked at her reformation, occasionally admitting this hymn among her prayers, and ordaining that, at the end of every psalm, of *Benedicite*, *Benedictus*, *Magnificat*, and *Nunc dimittis*, *Gloria Patri* shall be repeated.’
P. 119.

This universality cannot be allowed without better authority than our author has produced: and surely better might have been given.

The disputes about syllables are treated with too much levity, considering the many important discussions on them in various councils—

‘ The sophistical disputations about syllables and words sprang from the mundane philosophy. They originated with those, who disbelieved the peculiar doctrines of Christianity, as held by the ancient orthodox fathers. The abettors of the Arian heresy began to make it a distinguishing characteristic of their party, to glorify the Father, by or through the Son, in the Holy Ghost, intending thereby to denote, that the Son, and the Holy Ghost, were inferior to the Father, and beings of a nature different from his.

‘ One of the consequences resulting from the sinister interpretation of the Arian party, was, that this form, “which has not otherwise so much as the shew of any thing sounding towards impiety,” fell into disrepute.—Being suspected of countenancing, or concealing heterodoxy, it was generally disused by the Catholics. And agreeably to the spirit of the decisions of the council of Nice, that form

was

was universally adopted, which comes nearest to the original of this doxology, the form of baptism, delivered by our Lord.' p. 116.

We do not allow this notion of mundane philosophy. A Christian wishes to be understood as well as a heathen: and if, in receiving a sentiment from a foreigner, it should from mis-translation be conceived in terms totally repugnant to its original meaning, or to the orthodoxy of the believer, the error should certainly be rectified. Thus, in our language, the Holy Ghost is said to proceed from the Father and the Son; and every one knows the variety of disputes on every part of this sentence, in the language from which the sentence is taken. Yet though it is a mere verbal dispute, it would surely be better to rectify the phrase 'proceeding from,' because those words in the English language imply that the Holy Ghost had a beginning,—a doctrine evidently repugnant to that laid down by the church on this subject in most parts of its liturgy and articles.

We were surprised to find that our author should adopt the notion that St. Peter had lived a considerable time and was at last martyred at Rome,—an opinion for which we are inclined to think that he has no adequate authority. The grand question of the eternal generation or filiation of the Son is flurred over in a manner which we did not expect: and after having cast a censure upon the mundane philosophy of words, we cannot allow him to alter his stops, without better reasons—

“ And in one Lord Jesus Christ, the only-begotten Son of God, begotten of his father before all worlds, God of God, light of light, very God of very God, begotten, not made, being of one substance with the father*: By whom all things were made.” p. 262.

We might mention some other things: but we approve so much of the manner in which the whole in general is executed, that we wish rather to leave the correction of the errors to a future edition, than to a notification of them now, which might disparage the work. It cannot be doubted that every member of the church would wish to see the origin of its prayers and creeds well explained, by which he can enter better into the spirit of them: and from a full conviction of the improvements which the liturgy has received at various times, he will not be too tenacious of old forms, nor hesitate to join with our author in his opinion that it is susceptible of still farther improvement.

* I have after the word *Father*, presumed to place a colon, instead of a comma. *Father* here is sometimes uttered, improperly as I think, with what Mr. Walker calls the rising inflexion, and thus the words *by whom*, immediately following, which in reality refer to the Son, appear to be spoken of the Father.

A General View of the Agriculture of the County of Kent; with Observations on the Means of its Improvement. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement, from the original Report transmitted to the Board, with additional Remarks of several respectable Country Gentlemen and Farmers. By John Boys, of Betsanger, Farmer. 8vo 4s. sewed. Robinsons. 1796.

WHEN the numerous facts that have been discovered on the subject of agriculture, shall have been well arranged, and the advantages of different modes of cultivation accurately compared and ascertained, we may probably look forward to something like a regular system of husbandry. That the surveys of particular districts, by able and experienced farmers, is a probable means of accomplishing these objects, few, we suppose, will be inclined to dispute, however they may differ in respect to the manner in which they should be executed.

The pretensions and capability of Mr. Boys for the proper performance of the important task that he has here undertaken, are founded on the following circumstances—

‘ Neither pains nor expence have been spared to procure information; and the result is faithfully detailed. Having been brought up under a father who had the reputation of being a good practical farmer, and having been all my life engaged in the cultivation of different soils, and in grazing, I presume to think myself qualified to form opinions on the various systems of husbandry; but when I recommend any practice, my readers may be assured that I do so, not from theory only, but from my own experience.’ P. xvi.

The plan which is here pursued is exactly the same as that which we have given in our review of the survey of Lancashire *. In its execution, Mr. Boys generally displays an intimate acquaintance with the business of the farmer, and marks the utility of the different processes of husbandry on different soils, with judgment and perspicuity.

It is a circumstance of considerable importance in the practice of husbandry, to be well acquainted with the nature of the soils which are to be cultivated. To this object, Mr. Boys seems to have paid more attention than is usual in the common routine of farming. An example from east Kent, where the soils principally consist of chalk, loam, strong cledge, hazel mould, stiff clay, and, in some small tracts, flints, gravel, and sand, will fully explain the manner in which this has been attempted.

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XIX. p. 405.

' The chalk-foils are of various depths; from three to six or seven inches of loose, chalky mould, on a rock chalk bottom, and are mostly found on the tops and sides of the ridges of this district. At some places there is a little mixture of small flints, and at others, of black light mould, provincially called black hover. This last, in an unimproved state, is the worst land in this district; and the whole of these chalky foils are much neglected, and consequently of little value; but where they happen to be improved, by paring and burning, destroying the charlock, with good manure afterwards, they become very good land for turnips, barley, clover, and wheat; and some parts produce tolerable crops of sainfoin.

' The loamy soil is a very dry, soft, light mould, from six to ten inches deep, on a red soft clay, which is good brick earth, and lies in a stratum of from three to seven feet deep, under which is generally a layer of chalky marl, and then the rock chalk. This soil is very good, ploughs light, and may be worked at all seasons; and produces good crops, if well managed, of all sorts of corn and grafs.

' The strong cledge is a stiff tenacious earth with a small proportion of flints, and, at some places, small particles of chalk: it is from six to ten inches deep, on a hard rock chalk, and is found on the tops of the hills. When wet, it sticks like birdlime; and when thoroughly dry, the clods are so hard as not to be broken with the heaviest roll. It is very difficult to work, except when it is between wet and dry. This land, when well managed, and the seasons are favourable for the work, produces good crops of wheat, clover, and oats; but when unkindly seasons happen, and dry summers succeed, it is very unproductive.

' The hazel mould is a light soil on a clay bottom, more or less mixed with flints and sand. It is dry, and forms very kindly land for barley and wheat upon clover lays. Beans are sometimes blighted on this sort of land, as is wheat also on bean or pea-stubble, but more particularly the latter; for which reason wheat is very seldom sown after pease.

' The stiff clay lies on the tops of the highest hills. This soil is generally wet which arises only from the rains in winter; for the springs are above 300 feet deep on the rock chalk. It has at some places a layer of a yellow coloured clay between the surface mould and the rock.

' *Flints.*—This land, or rather surface of stones, occurs only in small tracts in the vallies about Dover and Stockbury, near Maidstone. It consists of beds of flints, with hardly any mould to be seen. This is very expensive to plough; but, under good management, with plenty of manure, is very productive in wheat, barley, and beans. There is very little gravelly soil, and not much sand in this district; a little of the latter, however, is seen in the vicinity of Hythe and Folkstone. This is very light land to work,

and excellent for turnips, barley, clover, wheat, pease, and potatoes.

‘ The flat rich lands in the vicinity of Faversham, Sandwich, and Deal, consist of two sorts of soil; namely, rich sandy loam, with a greater or less mixture of sand; and stiff clay, some of which, in the lower parts, is rather wet. The surface of the first is seven or eight inches deep, with a subsoil, varying in depth, of strong loam, clay, or chalk. This soil is always ploughed with four horses; is very dry and kindly to work at all seasons, and no ridges or water-furrows are required. It produces great crops of wheat, beans, barley, oats, and pease, and sometimes canary and radish.

‘ The stiff wet clay is that which has a strong clay bottom, or any substance that holds water. It lies low, is subject to land-springs, and of close texture, so as not to admit a quick filtration of water.

‘ This, when properly drained, and kept cleaned from weeds, and otherwise well managed in favourable seasons, is excellent land, and produces good crops of wheat, beans, and canary; but is generally very expensive to keep in good order.’ P. 13.

On the subjects of minerals, waters, and state of property, the author has offered nothing from his own observation. The materials which furnish these different heads, are chiefly drawn from *Hasted's Kent*.

Though there may be some truth in the following remarks, as things are conducted at present,—we cannot think that it ought to be assumed as a general axiom, that proper encouragement is not the best stimulus to industry and usefulness, in any class of men.

‘ Some writers on this subject’ (*cottages*) ‘ have taken considerable pains to shew, it would be a great advantage for every cottager to have two or three acres of land, that they might each keep a cow and two or three hogs, and raise plenty of potatoes: but gentlemen who recommend this, in their humanity to the individuals who are to be benefitted, lose sight of what would be the mischievous effects to the community, by the loss of their labour. I will venture with great confidence to predict, that if every farming cottager, or, in other words, every farmer's labourer in the kingdom, could be so accommodated, a famine would inevitably be the consequence in a short space of time; for my experience has taught me to observe, that few men will labour hard any farther than necessity compels them to do so; and it is clear, that any cottager who has two or three acres of land, keeps a cow, and two or three hogs, and grows plenty of potatoes, is not much necessitated to labour for others.’ P. 30.

The determination of the point respecting the size of farms
most

most advantageous to the community, has been a fruitful subject of controversy, and still remains undecided. The observations of our author incline him to the side of the larger farmer.

‘I am persuaded’ (says he) ‘that the large farmers, generally speaking, make the land more productive in the gross than the smaller farmers do, because they generally make greater exertions in improving their land; and of course, large farms must have a tendency to lower the price of provisions. It is very true, that a number of small farmers on a given tract of land, will rear more poultry and eggs, and perhaps make more butter than one farmer on the same quantity of land; but the one farmer will raise more mutton, wool, beef, and pork, and grow most corn; and will employ a much greater number of labourers, than the small farmers on the same tract of land; and consequently population will be increased rather than be diminished by large farms.’ p. 32.

These arguments, though plausible, are by no means satisfactory; they do not show any reason why the small farmer should not be equally industrious, and use equal exertion in cultivating his ground, with the large one. Nor is it made clear why a greater number of labourers must be employed on a farm when held by one person, than when divided amongst many. One difference is indeed very evident, and it is favourable to the small land-holder, that in the case of the large farmer no labour is required in himself; while, on the contrary, the small farmer is constantly under the necessity of being employed. To us, however, it would seem that the truth of the question lies in the middle, and that very large as well as very small farms are disadvantageous.

On the utility of a fair commutation for tithes as an encouragement to improvements in agriculture, we are inclined to think with Mr. Boys. The farmer, by such a regulation, would be rendered more easy and independent; and, on the whole, there would probably be a saving of labour, which is always an object of importance.

In the implements of husbandry employed in this county, we meet with little novelty. The plough chiefly used in this district is the *turn-wrest*, which is probably well calculated for these soils, though it seems to be a heavy unwieldy instrument, when compared with those employed in many other counties. But the author remarks here also, that

‘A great variety of ploughs and machines for drilling every species of grain is used in this county. The best by far for drilling wheat, barley, oats, pease, tares, &c. are made by Mr. Wellard of Deal. They are drawn by two horses abreast, in a double pair of shafts; drill seven rows at a time, each seven inches apart; and are
so

so contrived as to drill any quantity required per acre. They are very simple in their construction, and not liable to get out of order. They cost 14l. 10s. each.' p. 47.

In arable cultivation, Mr. Boys appears to be a rational and temperate advocate for the fallowing system. His remarks on this subject seem the result of practical experience.

On the method of making a good fallow, Mr. Boys has given some useful directions, which we shall extract.

'All kinds of soils should be ploughed about five inches deep before Christmas; and as soon as the land is tolerably dry in March, it should be cross-ploughed about six inches deep. Stiff soils must be left rough, until meliorated by rain, and then worked fine when between wet and dry; and all light soils immediately harrowed close after the plough, in order to promote the vegetation of seedling weeds, that they may be destroyed by subsequent ploughings, which must be repeated two or three times more, at intervals, as opportunities occur, during the months of May, June, and July; every time reducing the land fine immediately after each ploughing, while the land is moist, for the purpose before mentioned, of promoting the vegetation of weeds. Particular care should be taken not to touch the land either with the plough or harrows, when it is the least wet, as that only kneads it together, and creates more work to reduce it; besides locking up many of the seeds of weeds within the hard clods, and thereby preventing vegetation; by which such seeds are reserved for mischievous effects in the following crops of corn.

'Some farmers in this county, and many in some others, never plough their fallows until they have finished their barley sowing in the spring; and then, perhaps, not again until the land is overgrown with weeds. I have sometimes seen dung carried out, and laid in heaps, for spreading on such fallows, among green thistles and other weeds above the ground.

'Fallows had better never be made at all, than be done in such a slovenly manner.' p. 60.

The *rotation of crops*, a subject of great importance to the practical farmer, is treated here at some length, and with considerable judgment. The design of the writer seems, however, to have been rather the description of the systems of cropping generally followed in the county, than the ascertaining of those that may be most advantageously employed.

The observations and reflections scattered through this section may be consulted with advantage, as they contain much necessary practical information on a point which has not yet been sufficiently attended to by the agriculturist.

Although this cannot properly be called a fruit district,
fruit

fruit is sometimes cultivated in it, and frequently makes a profitable branch of husbandry.

On the management of cider, we meet with some observations that directly oppose practices that have been stated by Mr. Marshall as of great importance in his *Rural Economies of Herefordshire and the West of England*. They are these:—Mr. Stone, of Maidstone, a respectable cider-maker—

‘ From many years experience, has found no particular advantage in watching the fermentation of cyder, in order to rack it at any exact time. He mixes all sorts of apples together, and makes excellent cyder.’ P. 115.

On hop-grounds, wastes, and draining, we have observed many judicious remarks.

The processes of paring and burning, though condemned by many, Mr. Boys considers as of the greatest importance in the cultivation and improvement of the lands in Kent.

‘ Let’ (says he) ‘ the land, when burnt, be perfectly cleaned from charlock and other weeds, by growing turnips until the weeds are totally eradicated by hoeing, &c.; let the turnips be fed off the land, by sheep lying on the land day and night; then sow it with barley and clover; the latter to be fed off with sheep, folding them on the land for wheat. Lastly, return the straw produced upon the land in manure mixed with clay or loam, or any other fresh earth that is near at hand, for a second Norfolk rotation, which may be repeated; or the land may be sown with sainfoin, to remain till a turf is formed fit for paring and burning again. This plan being pursued, the practice of burning the soil will not give any cause of complaint, either to landlord or tenant. Theorists exclaim, that by paring and burning, the staple of the land is reduced, and the soil is wasted; which may be somewhat true: but all this is very immaterial, if fine crops of corn can be produced where none ever grew before, and the land at the same time be improved.’ P. 137.

The subject of manures is treated in a judicious way. In forming mix-hills, or heaps of dung and sea-weed, it would probably be advantageous to interpose a thin stratum of lime between each of the layers of these substances, in order to destroy the texture of the weed, and render it a more perfect manure. This idea was suggested from observing the weed in many of these heaps very little decayed, after having remained in them for a considerable length of time.

In examining the different circumstances of rural economy, as described in this survey, the intelligent farmer will discover, in many instances, defects and improprieties. This remark is particularly applicable to buildings and fences, and in some

degree to the turnip and potatoe management, though beginning to be more general and better conducted. Hay-making is also ill performed; and the practices of draining and irrigation appear to be neither sufficiently introduced, nor conducted in the most judicious way. In breeding and rearing cattle, this district seems likewise to be much behind the midland counties.

*Travels through Germany, Switzerland, Italy, and Sicily.
Translated from the German of Frederic Leopold Count Stolberg. (Concluded from Vol. XIX. p. 368.)*

THE beauties and curiosities of Naples and its vicinity long detained our intelligent traveller; and his observations present us with a variety of information, reinforced by the attractions of entertainment. At the palace of Capo di Monte, his taste for painting was gratified with the sight of some excellent pieces by Titian and other masters; but he complains of the admission of too many pictures of little merit, which were introduced merely to swell the collection; for, out of fifteen hundred, only one hundred (he affirms) are really beautiful.

The churches in the great towns of Italy are generally adorned, both by elegance of architecture, and by the charms of painting; but those of Naples do not shine in either of these respects. Even the principal church (that of St. Januarius) is said to have no pretensions to beauty, though it cannot be denied that it has some traces of magnificence.

Instead of following the author in his account of Naples, we shall pass over with him to the isle of Capri, the retreat of that execrable tyrant, Tiberius—

‘We landed at a village,’ (he says) ‘which was situated between projecting cliffs in a verdant and productive valley; to which the surrounding terrors of the rocks gave additional charms. Here, as in the island of Ischia, are shady groves and gardens; and here too the air is rendered odoriferous, by shrubs, fruits, and flowers.’

‘I saw several flowers with which I was unacquainted, and found the double red *anagallis*; which is very plentiful with us, except that it is single. We ascended a steep road to the little town of Capri, in hopes of finding asses, and of this evening visiting the ruins of one of the palaces of Tiberius: but these hopes were deceitful.’

‘Though late, we walked on the sea shore; and found the strand covered with multitudes of round pebbles, and very frequently among them circular pieces of white marble, polished by the waves. The rocks on the shore form arches, and projecting cliffs; one of which soon set limits to our walk. We found corals among the

flints on the strand. It being dark, we saw the glowing lava of Vesuvius; which rises immediately opposite to Capri.

‘Early on the 17th’ (of April, 1792) ‘we began our ride up high steps, by gardens, which brought us into narrow paths, that led among blooming trees and small fields, till the country became more rude: yet only more in comparison with the pleasant places through which we had passed. We saw the barley in full ear. The higher parts through which we rode were embellished with a beautiful pyramidal *ornithogalum*, the flower of which has six white leaves, with a tender purple line in the middle.

‘Large foundations remain of the palace of Tiberius; with halls, and ruins of two pillars. A hermit now lives near the chapel of Santa Maria, in a place which was once the abode of the ruler of half the world. Here we had the grandest and most enchanting sea prospect that I had ever beheld. We overlooked the whole bay of Naples, lying between the two much greater bays to which Gaeta and Salerno give their names. Beyond this is the promontory of Licosa; and farther than that the hill of Circe; which are at least five-and-twenty German miles distant from each other: but the beauty of the surrounding objects is of much greater value than their distance.

‘The view of the bay of Salerno is even more enchanting than the views of the two other bays. The shores which it presents are lofty; and on each side of them are seen sixteen or seventeen ridges of mountains, one behind the other. The promontory of Massa towers in the vicinity of the island of Capri; from which it is only about half a German mile distant. Beyond the shores of the two other bays the lofty Apennines rise.

‘Leaving this place, we rode to the south east part of the island; where we alighted from our asses and climbed a steep footpath, and then made as steep a descent through a cavity formed by the arching rocks, that led to a grotto, in which we met with the ruins of an ancient building. One of the palaces of Tiberius doubtless was here. This might probably be one of the places where, according to the narrative of Suetonius, he delivered himself up to the most hateful lasciviousness, among cragged rocks and caverns. The recollection of this monster associates itself with the solemn gloom of the wonders of the scene. From this rocky hall there is a prospect toward the sea. In the blue distance, on the left, lies a part of the shores of the bay of Salerno; and, to the right, the neighbouring rocks, projecting and overhanging each other. You cannot see the sky, and can only discover a part of the sea, visibly enclosed, lying deep below you, and of a dark blue colour.

‘Our guides called these caverns *Grotta di Matrimon*. We are informed, by Tacitus, that Tiberius built twelve great palaces on this island. Suetonius calls one of these palaces the villa of Jupiter; from which Lipsius conjectures that the twelve great palaces were dedicated

dedicated to the twelve superior deities. According to this not improbable supposition, these ruins, to which the people have applied the word *Matrimon*, may have been a building dedicated to the mother of the gods: or the great mother: *Matri deorum, vel Matri Magnæ*: that is, Cybele.

‘ Large remains of reservoirs, and mosaic flooring, are found on the south side of the island. People were employed there in the search of antiquities, at the expence of a principal person of Naples. Their superintendant relates that pillars and other valuable antiquities have been found, but no statues: probably, this was a winter palace of Tiberius.

‘ The people of this island are lively, and full of gesticulation; like those of Ischia. An old woman was raised to a kind of comic rapture at the fresh coloured cheeks of my son, and at his flaxen hair. She danced round and round him, threw her arms in the air, and, as she had no castagnetts, she loudly snapped her fore finger and thumb, with quick emotion, and sang, as if half inspired or half crazy, *Quanto é bello! Sopra bello! Sotto bello! Tutto bello! O quanto bello!* How beautiful he is! Beautiful above! Beautiful below! Beautiful every where! Oh how beautiful!’ Vol. ii. p. 95.

The count afterwards visited Apulia; the inhabitants of which province (he observes) appear willing to maintain the reputation of industry, enjoyed by the ancient possessors of the country. He also found them a lively people, friendly and disinterested, curious and inquisitive, credulous and superstitious. He speaks of Barletta as a town of considerable trade, well-built and pleasantly situated. On this coast, all the productions of nature and art appeared to him to be singular; but he does not mention any thing particularly remarkable among the objects which he beheld in this part of his tour.

In Calabria he saw various traces of the devastation occasioned by the earthquake of the year 1783. Before this dreadful calamity, the province contained few inhabitants, in proportion to its extent. How severely then must it have felt the loss of 32,000 persons, who are supposed to have perished on that occasion! The remaining occupants of this charming country are deprived, by royal rapacity and misgovernment, of the benefits which they may justly claim.

‘ The whole system of the country’ (says the count) ‘ is strikingly bad. The countryman is obliged to pay the king heavy taxes for the oil of his press, and the raw silk which his worms produce: though he has already paid his landlord for the ground on which the olive and the mulberry tree grew. The merchant cannot afford to give him much for his oil, because he is obliged to pay a tax which is equally heavy and unjust for leave to export it. The argument
that

that the foreign merchant pays this tax is absurd. Is it not evident that the foreigner will pay the cultivator the less the more he is obliged to pay the king? Heavy taxes are likewise paid for wrought silk, and for silk stuffs. Beside, it is surely evil sufficient that the natives should be obliged to yield the carrying trade to foreigners, from the want of protection against the Barbary corsairs.

‘ If the peasant be the vassal of a *Barone*, he is subject to tolls at the mills and at the oil presses: beside which he is obliged to pay a tax in kind, for the produce of the soil. To this we must add that the roads, unrepaired, daily become worse; and whole communities are hemmed in and cut off from intercourse, with town or country. The small circulation of money is still farther limited by the sudden abolition of monasteries.

‘ Thus do the inhabitants suffer dearth in paradise. Thus depopulation increases; in a country where marriages are uncommonly fruitful, but where the dread of increasing wretchedness deters the people from marriage. And truly it requires a paradise, such as Calabria, to invite any inhabitants where such numerous afflictions oppress a people who are habitually cheerful; where the ox-driver notwithstanding plays on his bagpipe, and where the jocund youth, with songs, and springs, and bounds, leads his herd of goats among the mountains.’ Vol. ii. p. 192.

The work is unnecessarily swelled with quotations from ancient writers, and with historical details; modes of extension to which the writers of travels are too much addicted. The account of the modern town of Sciglio, for instance, is accompanied with a long extract from the *Odyssey*, concerning the rock and the fable of Scylla; and the count's approach to Sicily is preceded by the history of that island, deduced from the earliest times. An historical sketch of Messina follows; and Herodotus furnishes a useless quotation. With regard to the present state of this city, we find, that ‘ it has in great part been rebuilt’ (since the earthquake), and that ‘ the streets are now more spacious and handsome.’ The population is estimated at 36,000 persons; and the inhabitants ‘ trade largely in the products of the island.’ Palermo carries on less commerce, but it is far more populous, than Messina.

The former importance of Syracuse has drawn, from the pen of this diffuse writer, an historical narrative sufficiently ample for a duodecimo volume. Does he think that a tedious repetition of ancient history is a necessary appendage to modern travels?

Having described the principal remains of antiquity at Catania, he mentions the effects of the successive earthquakes to which that city has been exposed by its vicinity to Mount *Ætna*. In the year 1693, it was ‘ nearly reduced to a pile of ruins;’ but it is now a large and flourishing town. The curiosity

riosity of the count induced him to ascend the mountain; and, after a nocturnal progress, he and his companions approached the summit.

' We now beheld, by day light, fields of desolation around us, wildly hurled, and intermingled with dross, black ashes, snow, and vast masses of lava; which had been vomited, at different times, from the mouth of *Ætna*: on the left, the smoking crater rose. Before us lay, in the distant deep, the *Toro* and other hills; and a continued bellying bed of clouds, the darkening extremities of which the eye could not clearly distinguish, either from the mountains or the sea, till the majestic sun rose, in fire, and reduced every object to order. It was a new "dividing of the light from the darkness; and of the dry land from the gathering together of the waters." Chaos seemed to unfold itself, where no four-footed beast, no bird, interrupted the solemn silence of the formless void.

' *Wo sie keinen Todten begruben, und keiner erstehn wird* *:

Mess. cant. i.

as Klopstock says of the ice-encircled pole.

' *Ætna* cast his black shades over the grey dawn of the western atmosphere; while round him stood his sons, but far beneath: yet volcanic mountains all: in number six-and-thirty, each a *Vesuvius*. To the north, the east, and the south, Sicily lay at our feet; with its hills, and rivers, and lakes, and cities. In the low deep, the clouds, tinged with purple, were dispersed and banished from the presence of the golden sun; while their shades, flying before the west wind, were scattered over the landscape far and wide.

' After pausing, astonished and enraptured by the sublime spectacle, we began our ascent to the summit of the mountain. To attain this, we had to cross a large tract of ashes, and lumps of dross: where extreme caution was required, to prevent falling over the rugged *scoria*. Nor could caution itself afford any certainty that an arm, or a leg, might not be broken: so continually did the hollow cinders turn under the foot, and fall upon it at every step.

' These obstacles being overcome, we still had to ascend the summit; which is very steep, and in many places so slippery that you can with difficulty get foot-hold: though the descent is not so very sudden as frequently to make a fall dangerous. We found sulphurous vapours occasionally rising so powerfully, through apertures, that we were obliged suddenly to turn from them.

' Being frequently under the necessity of resting to take breath, we were about two hours before we arrived at the top: and yet, misled by the description of some travellers, we actually figured to ourselves greater difficulties than we found.

' And now we stood beside the vast, circular, and to the eye impervious, throat of *Ætna*. The form it has assumed is that of a

* No dead are buried there; nor any there will rise.

tunnel : except that the circle is not regular. Its contracting abyfs is soon loft to the fight. In various places, thin clouds of fmoke afcended out of fmall cavities, as from fo many chimneys : while the mouth itfelf tempeftuoufly emitted its whirlwinds of black and white clouds, in a fpiral column. To go round the crater, or to remain a moment facing the wind, were things impoffible. Even with the wind on your back, by which you are fecured againft the fmoke of the grand crater, you are pained and fuffocated by whiffs of fulphurous vapours ; which afcend from the backs of the fummits.

‘ As in Solfatara, near Pozzuoli, fo here likewise, on the top of *Ætna* and round the rim of the crater, fmall lumps of pure fulphur are found : which they alfo are round the fmall cavities.

‘ The circumference of the mouth, or crater, is eftimated at from three to four thoufand paces. Within, as far as the eye can difcover, it is coated with fulphur.

‘ On the north, feparated from the ancient crater by a thin wall, or cruft of fulphur, there is a new mouth ; which was opened by a falling of the fummits, in the month of May, in the prefent year. This likewise is round, tunnel formed, and impervious to the eye. Standing on its rim we faw the whole weft part of the ifland (which, for fome hours, had been concealed from us by the mountain) to its extremeft point ; as far as the high *Monte di Trapani*, or *Eryx*, and the fea beyond. Our guide endeavoured to point out the *Lipari* iflands, on the right : but, being lefs acquainted with the country than he was, I could not diftinguifh them from the blue clouds of the horizon.

‘ We threw ftones into this crater ; which rolled like diftant thunder, till they at laft fell, with a loud din, into the water below. After throwing the ftone, I counted eight-and-forty pulfations before I heard the dafhing of the water. This experiment feems to me to ftrengthen the opinion of thofe who believe that the mouths of the volcano are open to, and communicate with, the fea.

‘ On a fudden, we heard the gulph begin to roar, with a found like that of boiling waters, in this prodigious cauldron ; and our guide advifed us immediately to depart.’ Vol. ii. p. 478.

In fome parts of Sicily, there are mines of gold and filver ; but they are not worked. In a country fo fertile as that ifland is, it is not neceffary that the induftry of cultivation fhould be diverted to mineral purfuits. It is, ultimately, more advantageous for the inhabitants of fuch a country to draw filver and gold, by agriculture and commerce, from other regions, than to employ their time in extracting thofe metals from the earth.

As traits of character and manners are among the moft pleafing ingredients of works of this kind, no apology is requifite for the infertion of the following remarks—

CRIT. REV. VOL. XX. June, 1797.

M

‘ The

'The Sicilians' (says the count) 'praise themselves for their open liberal character: the Neapolitans accuse them of a very opposite quality, and attribute all the praise of liberality to themselves. For my own part, I found both nations friendly, prepossessing, and capable not only of politeness but of good intention: nay more, of confidence.

'The Neapolitans to me appear to me to be the most sanguine, and joyous: the Sicilians the most serious, and ardent. Both are irritable: but each in concord with their character. The Neapolitan is impetuous, and his anger sudden: but a word unremarked sinks deeply, and sows the seed of resentment, in the heart of the Sicilian.

'Crescit occulto velut arbor ævo. Hor. od. xii. lib. i.

'Conceal'd an age the rooted vengeance grows. FRANCIS.

'It nourishes the sense of injury; and, dashing down the cup of vengeance, sheds its sanguinary contents. The difference of characters in different towns is very great. The people of Trapani are most accused of the passion of revenge.

'The love of liberty is common to the inhabitants of both kingdoms; and, be it told to the honour of the Neapolitans, they have constantly resisted the introducing of that dreadful and detestable tribunal, the inquisition. Sicily was first relieved from it by the present king.

'The defects of a hot climate have free play among the Sicilians, Neapolitans, and Italians, in general; from the public and private education of youth, which is neglected in a most indefensible manner. Like as, in this climate, the manifold fruits of the fertile soil are intermingled with numerous kinds of thistles of uncommon growth, so do failings and vices luxuriantly rankle, in the national character of this people; whose talents and capabilities are uncommonly great. Voluptuousness, anger, and revenge, glow in their fiery temperament with unabated heat. When not irritated, they are a well meaning people.

'To this good intention must be attributed the prepossessing and noble hospitality of the inhabitants of both kingdoms; and to this the security with which strangers live in Rome: although there are annually five hundred murders committed in that city; not as the sacrifices of rapacity, but of jealousy, sudden anger, and revenge.

'Their infant children testify violent anger; and their tears are accompanied with tokens of obstinacy, and vehemence. A part of these failings may probably be placed to the account of inherited qualities, and heat of blood; but as great a part, at least, may be justly attributed to the unreasonableness of parents, and their impetuous manner of teaching their children. Accustomed to play with stones, the boys are armed with this dangerous weapon of passion; and, if a stone be thrown at a dog, all the boys hurl at the unfortunate

fortunate animal; while their elders not only encourage this bad practice by their silence, but frequently by their example. Their general treatment of animals is a proof of the rude state of their feelings.

‘ In a country so fruitful as this, idleness is native. The inhabitant of the north is obliged to supply his wants by the sweat of his brow: among which wants are a strong diet, warm clothing, much firing, and distilled liquors. The more abstemious Italians and Sicilians are lightly fed, and lightly clothed. Although their fiery wines in many places are as cheap as our table beer, yet drunkenness is with them an uncommon vice. In Italy, I saw one or two men intoxicated; and in Sicily none. The climate is so mild that they are in need neither of a substantial nor of a roomy habitation; and their very mechanics generally work in the streets. Shade and repose are their natural wants, and the origin of their indolence; which, however these circumstances may plead its excuse, is still fearful in its consequences.

‘ One of these consequences is the number of beggars, who are often impudent; and appear more so to travellers than they are in reality. The traveller too frequently forgets that beggars themselves cannot but partake of the national vivacity.

‘ The Italians and Sicilians are accused of selfishness; nor is the accusation entirely groundless: though I have found among them men of all ranks who possessed generosity. It was no uncommon thing for the lower order of people to refuse any recompense from me, or my fellow travellers, for the trouble they had taken, or the civilities they had shewn. Neither ought a nation to be judged by people whose profession it is to live by strangers. How would those be mistaken who, judging from the selfishness of many innkeepers, and their servants, in the German part of Switzerland, should make them the characteristic standard of the German Swiss; who are the noblest people on God's earth!

‘ In countries where nature produces much spontaneously, and much more with little labour, men ought to have been allured to an active life by the opening of new channels of industry: but here its efforts are frequently neglected by the tardiness of government; and, what is worse, frequently opposed by the obstinacy of caution.

‘ A lively fancy, misguided by a defective religious education, becomes the nurse of credulity. Hence trifling ceremonies usurp the place of serious duties; and the muttering of words without meaning is the substitute of love, and purity of heart. To these must be attributed depravity of manners, and frequently a want of faith.’ Vol. ii. p. 512.

When the author had returned to Naples, he was desirous of passing some weeks in rural retirement. For this purpose

he made choice of the valley of Sorrento, a beautiful and romantic spot, protected by its situation from the heats of an Italian summer. From this retreat he made an excursion to the isle of Ischia; the air of which is healthy, and the fertility great. He was pleased with the friendly character and simple manners of the occupants of this delightful island; but he seems to be too sanguine in his tribute of praise, when he mentions them as 'perhaps the most deserving of affection on earth.'

In his return from Rome to the north of Italy, he passed through the Bolognese, and other territories which have lately been wrested from the hands of the pope by the French republicans. Proceeding to Venice, he treats of that city, and of the government of the nation, with little novelty. A public work of great utility, commenced by that state in the year 1751, claims a short notice.

'About twenty miles south of Venice, the republic has nearly completed an undertaking which is scarcely inferior to the greatest works of ancient Rome. A high wall, or pier, of large stones is built, on a small cape; the purpose of which is to protect the shallow waters that surround the seventy-two islands, on which the city is built, and many others that are seen scattered around, against the wild waves of the Adriatic. To resist these, the wall is constructed upon two distinct terraces of marble; each of which is nine paces broad. The smallest of these terraces, which consists of four steps, is opposed to the inner waters, which are called La Laguna. The joints of the stone, after the manner of the ancient Roman buildings, are all filled with a mixture of lime and puzzolana. This latter material is brought from Mount Vesuvius.' Vol. ii. p. 599.

Persons of rank, at Vienna, have been frequently represented as formal and haughty; but the count declares that he has in no place found so little constraint among the great, as in the imperial metropolis.

'The old and the young, who in other great cities of Germany, while they so frequently assemble in the same chamber, appear to hold themselves distant and distinct from each other, here confidentially converse together; and thus communicate a tone of variety and animation, and a charm to social intercourse which render it delightful. Not all modelled by the same rules, not equally stiff and strait laced, by which the human character is so frequently degraded, and which repetition renders so disgusting, you here meet with people of different propensities, who therefore have greater powers of entertaining. The women are lively and pleasant; and grave statesmen and rough warriors listen to them with delight. Neither is gaming, which

which in other cities is the gulph of all the affections and passions, here the only employment of society.

' Strangers are welcomed with amenity; and with an air that shews the heart and the lips are not at variance. If a stranger be introduced to certain families, he is neither obliged to yawn with the tedious glutton, nor administer to the avarice of a rapacious card party. His host, on the contrary, endeavours to sound his affections, heighten his pleasures, and receive him with that unaffected hospitality which renders his stay agreeable; and his endeavours are usually successful.' Vol. ii. p. 604.

In the last epistle, a hasty sketch is given of a journey through Bohemia to Saxony. The capitals of those two countries are briefly described; the one, as combining modern embellishments and antique magnificence, both in the Bohemian taste; the other, as the finest city in Germany.

From the view which we have exhibited of this work, our readers will perceive that it is not unworthy of their attention. It contains, indeed, a redundancy of matter; but exuberance is preferable to sterility; and, though the language of the translation is incorrect, Mr. Holcroft is certainly entitled to some praise for his spirited execution of a laborious task.

An Introduction to Arithmetic and Algebra. By Thomas Manning. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Rivingtons.

THERE is not perhaps a science of greater utility than arithmetic; yet, if we go to the Exchange, and inquire of those men who are chiefly employed in the practice of figures, it is astonishing how few will be found, who have the least idea of the rationale of the art. They know nothing of the excellence of the order of the Arabic figures: they add ten or borrow ten, because they have been taught to do it at their academies: they find a fourth proportional, and act upon the result with certainty, without any examination of the doctrine of proportion. Hence these people, if taken out of the dog-trot plan by which they gain their livelihood, are, notwithstanding the immensity of their self-conceit, very little, if at all, superior to the clown, whose business is to dig and plough: and having been accustomed to contemplate their increasing wealth, they think it quite sufficient that their sons should be able to perform the same act, and conceive it dangerous for them to pursue any thing like liberal knowledge. To any one, on the contrary, who thinks a little on the nature of the human mind, and how debasing it is that a reasonable being should be employed solely in one act, like a mere

M 3

machine,

machine, this mode of thinking must appear preposterous; and he is almost tempted to cry out with a celebrated character, 'Perish commerce, perish manufactures, if they cannot be pursued without the degradation of intellect!' We are, however, of a different opinion. Commerce and manufactures may be pursued, not only without debasing the mind, but they may leave time for improving it to a very high degree, if avarice has not gotten possession of it, and happiness is not supposed to exist only in the exorbitant accumulation of wealth.

In the work before us, the rationale of arithmetic in its first rules is explained, and in a very judicious manner. (When the writer is a little more accustomed to the practice of teaching, he may probably think it necessary to lower some part of his explanation to meaner capacities.) Thence our author, very properly, goes to algebra, and, after defining the terms, teaches the application of the four first rules in arithmetic to it. Here the beginner is generally very much hampered with the use of the negative sign; and the great difficulty is to teach him to comprehend, that *minus* into *minus* gives *plus*. This point is laboured here in the usual manner: but at the end of the proof, a doubt of the legitimacy of this method is implied by the phrase, 'if multiplication by abstract negative quantities be allowed.' The vindication of these quantities does not also seem to us very forcible in the page before this doubt. 'It may happen,' says our author, that a quantity c is to be multiplied into the quantity $x-y$, when it is not known whether x or y is the greatest: but in that case, without considering the difficulties, enlarged upon so well by baron Maseres, attendant on the negative sign, it is clear, that the product will be $cx-cy$, and in the process of the work it will be soon discovered, whether one side of the equation ought to have been $cx-cy$ or $cy-cx$. The grand point is to prove, that $x-y$ may be multiplied into such a quantity as *minus* c , and that the product will be $cx-cy$. We do not see that our author has cast any additional light on this subject; and it remains in the same obscurity in which it was left by Clairaut and Maclaurin. We would recommend to him to look at Clairaut, page 73, Art. LX. Paris ed. 1749; and we doubt not that he will easily discover the error in the mode of reasoning, from supposing a and c , in the terms $a-b$, and $c-d$, to be equal to nothing: an error which runs through most of the writers we have consulted on the same subject.

Fractions, evolution, and involution, follow, and are explained fully, many parts with ingenuity and perspicuity. On equations, the next subject, there is rather too much prolixity: and the conversion of equations, from the change of positive and negative roots, is not so explained as to remove

every embarrassment from the learners. The subject of equations concludes with quadratics.

Ratios are the subject of a separate chapter, and are well explained. Combination and permutations come next, and the last chapter, on the binomial theorem, gives us every reason to believe, not only that our author is not deficient in application, but that he deserves every encouragement from his university.

Sonnets, and other small Poems: by T. Park. Small 8vo. 6s. Boards. Sael. 1797.

THERE is a fondness for poetry, which seems rather to originate from the course of a man's reading having been directed to compositions of that sort, and perhaps from numbering authors among his acquaintance, than from any real fire of genius or originality of thought. Of this description are the poems of Mr. Park, which consist of sonnets, inscriptions, elegies, and epigrams. Some of these may barely be called pretty; some betray great marks of negligence; many are trifling; and all those which aim at humour, are very flat. But they are embellished, according to the modern custom, with engravings from Stothard and others; and the publication will make as good a figure as most of its brethren in a bookfeiler's shop-window.

In the following stanzas the thought is very just, and drawn to a good epigrammatic point in the last verse—

‘ The bard who paints from rural plains,
Must oft himself the void supply
Of damsels pure, and artless swains,
Of innocence and industry.

‘ For sad experience shews the heart
Of human beings much the same;
Or polish'd by insidious art,
Or rude as from the clod it came.

‘ And he who roams the village round,
Or strays amid the harvest sere,
Will hear, as now, too many a sound
Quiet would never wish to hear.

‘ The wrangling rustic's loud abuse,
The coarse, unfeeling, witless jest;
The threat obscene, the oath profuse,
And all that cultur'd minds detest,

'Hence, let those sylvan poets glean,
 Who picture life without a flaw ;—
 Nature may form a perfect scene,
 But Fancy must the figures draw.' P. 41.

We shall likewise give the—

'Inscription for a Table, which was formerly used as a Writing-
 Desk by Thomson the Poet.

'Ye, who on things of simplest kind,
 Can stamp the mystic worth of mind ;
 Who press the turf where Virgil trod,
 And think it like no other sod ;
 Or guard each leaf from Shakspeare's tree
 With druid like idolatry :—
 Ye will this relic fondly view,
 On which the sylvan icholiast drew
 With moral sweet, and comment clear,
 His record of the rural year ;
 While every season's change he trac'd,
 With Shakspeare's fancy, Virgil's taste.' P. 59.

We do not think, however, that the genius of Thomson is well characterised in the comparison of the last line: he excelled in accurate description, not in fancy; and was far from having the correct taste and harmonious diction of Virgil, though he excelled him, and almost every other poet, in the higher beauties of moral sentiment, and the purest theopathic affections.

We beg leave to suggest to Mr. Park, that *balance* and *talents*, *dry beards* and *five years*, cannot by any indulgence pass for rhymes; that *floriate* and *droopy* are not English words; and that the following line can only be made verse of, by pronouncing *i ma ge ry*—

'So in ideal imagery bright.'

History of the Original Constitution of Parliaments, from the Time of the Britons to the present Day. To which is added, the present State of the Representation. By T. H. B. Oldfield, Author of the History of the Boroughs. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.

MUCH injudicious praise and censure falls, in the present days, to the lot of our constitution; and on this subject we cannot be expected to speak without giving offence to the violent of both parties. Yet it is useful to them that facts should be fairly stated; and on the great question of reform
 in

in the representation, we cannot hesitate saying, without pledging ourselves to the plans either of universal suffrage or suffrage by householding, that the present plan of representation is an alarming and dangerous innovation on the constitution. The facts are too numerous to admit on this head of any dispute. The spirit of the constitution is entirely lost in various places, where the representation is now bestowed on posts or stones, or walls, or a few detached cottages. Hence the state of the present representation is now well understood; and by means of the work before us (which, notwithstanding a few inaccuracies likely to creep in on such an extensive subject, we particularly recommend to every one interested in the present question), we may with ease determine the fate of any opposition. The votes of the house of commons must be secured; and upon the nature of these votes depends the success of any party. These votes will naturally be influenced by the persons to whom the voters owe their seats; and we have only to consider how many persons can command a decisive majority in the house of commons. These persons must be really, though not nominally, the governors of the country. If these persons should unite together against the crown, the crown itself must give way to them: but the crown carries not only a considerable number of boroughs by itself, but secures also a much greater number by the rewards and honours which it can bestow on their owners. It is possible that under the present constitution the country might exhibit the strange spectacle of the king and people being united together against a formidable body of borough-holders, and yet be unable, by any constitutional means, to disengage themselves from the faction in power.

Such was never intended by our constitution to be the case of this country. The work before us shows by what gradual means it has been brought into its present situation. All men are fond of power, and few are capable of exercising it to their own honour, or the advantage of others. The little chief of a corporation delights in his superiority. The smaller the number of his subjects, the greater is his influence: and the greater the value of a seat in parliament, the greater must be the sum pocketed by each burghers, if the number is diminished. Hence it is not surprising that wherever any opportunity has been given, the number of voters in a borough has decreased; and as stones give less trouble than men, it is not to be wondered at that the right of voting should at last attach itself to some visible marks, by which the proprietor of the land designates the qualification for electing his representatives in parliament. This is the natural course of things; and it is come to such a pass, that representation is in many places

places a mere mockery; and the man who pretends to love the constitution of England, must be a base and servile character, if he is not shocked at such innovations and abuses.

To lay open to the public these abuses, is the intention of the work before us; and in the Introduction we have an account of our Saxon parliaments, to which members were sent by the votes of householders in each district. This position we believe to be in the main right: but the distance of time prevents us from ascertaining precisely what restrictions there might have been, with respect to householders under peculiar distinctions of age, poverty, rank, &c. The Norman conquest overthrew this simple plan of representation; but as the Normans were incorporated with the inhabitants of the country, they by degrees were glad to adopt the form of the ancient representation. Various changes took place in the mode in different reigns: the worst of all the changes has been within the two last centuries; and as an attempt has been made in parliament to bring in the ancient form of voting by householders, the author deserves well of the public, by showing that it is no new scheme of modern politics, but the old system of our ancestors. This scheme lies between two, the present system, and the plan of universal suffrage. The present is calculated for the increase of abuses; the plan of universal suffrage has never been tried. Universal suffrage labours under the imputation of novelty; the present system is an accumulation of inveterate abuses. The advocates for the former have the advantage over those of the latter, because their system approaches nearer to the spirit of the constitution; and every dilapidated borough is now a disgrace to it.

But if the influence of certain persons, by means of boroughs, can be accounted for, how comes it to pass that the members for such a city as London should not be all considered as independent? This subject is worthy of reflection; and the general imputation of 'political apathy,' or rather 'political profligacy,' is not by any means satisfactory. The fact is, that the doctrine of influence is now better understood than ever; and it is seen completely in the transactions of the city. There are in the city three great corporations, and several smaller ones. The great ones are, the municipal government, the bank, and the India-house. The influence of these on shopkeepers must be always very considerable. The leading men in these corporations are merchants: and we need not say how much merchants have, within these few years, been indebted to the treasury. In the same manner, the smaller corporations may be brought under the same degree of influence; and, instead of exclaiming against the political apathy or profligacy of the citizens, it must strike impartial men as a wonder,

wonder, that so many should still retain their independence. It matters but little, what the form of government in any country is, if there is a purse at the command of one man, sufficient to satisfy the craving appetite of those who are not to be caught by honours.

To correct the abuses in the present system, the following plan is recommended—

‘ The number of houses in Great Britain are, according to the house-tax, twelve hundred thousand. Let these be divided into primary assemblies, of ten each, to be denominated by their ancient term of tythings; each of them electing annually their conservator of the peace, or tything-man. Let ten of these tythings form the hundred court, agreeable to ancient usage, and elect annually their constable of the hundred. Ten of these hundreds, again, should form the court of the thousand, and elect annually their elderman or magistrate; and two thousand should form the elective district to choose a representative for the parliament. This mode would establish a system of representation perfectly fair and equal, and would be effected without the least departure from the plan agreed upon by the society of the Friends of the People. It is only an organization of that plan upon the ancient practical principles of the constitution, and might be effected in the following regular progression—

1,200,000 house-keepers.

120,000 tything-men.

12,000 constables.

1,200 magistrates.

600 representatives.

‘ Should the plan for universal suffrage be adopted, the same system will be equally practicable, though on a more extensive basis.’ P. 546.

Against this plan, a real friend of the constitution can scarcely find a good reason to object. The great difficulty is the mode of introducing it; for by what argument can you persuade a man in possession of a borough, to give up his private for the public good? As we have seen some men do this, it may happen, that, by a fortunate concurrence of circumstances, the majority of borough-holders, uniting with the members of counties, and the few independent towns in the kingdom, may see the propriety of adopting such a measure, without which the constitution of England must necessarily, in a very few years, depart, as predicted by Hume, in his *Euthanasia of Monarchy*.

A Practical View of the prevailing Religious System of professed Christians in the higher and middle Classes in this Country, contrasted with real Christianity. By William Wilberforce, Esq. M.P. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.

THE Christian religion was first received by the poor. Not many rich, not many noble, not many learned, were called: our Saviour also has animadverted on the difficulties attendant on a rich man's profession of the gospel. We are to expect therefore, in every country, that the higher classes will not receive Christianity with the same zeal as the lower, — that they will blend with it much of their own caprice, — that they will endeavour to make it conform, as much as possible, to the prevailing fashions of the times. Hence it will be often useful to point out to those among them who may be in danger from such an example, the evil tendency of their conduct, and its manifest repugnancy to the spirit of Christianity. But at the same time that certain bad practices are censured, an author is to be particularly careful that he does not run into the other extreme, and present to his readers a form bearing but an imperfect resemblance to real Christianity. The subject therefore of the work before us we cannot but heartily commend. It comes too from a man from whose situation a correct knowledge may be expected of the manners of the higher classes: and as a member of the legislature, he is undertaking a task lying particularly within his sphere. With all these advantages in his favour, we little expected to meet from him the trite remark on the distinction between an ecclesiastic and a layman. It is not the circumstance of his being a layman which will have any effect on the sale of the work. He will be attended to because he is the representative of a great country, is a friend of the minister, is zealous for the established order of things in church and state, has been looked up to as a friend of liberty in the case of the depressed Africans, and is one of the principal leaders in that class in society which appropriates to itself a peculiar insight into, and practice of, the doctrines of Christianity.

On these accounts the task of the Reviewer becomes more difficult. The greater the prejudice runs in favour of the author, the greater must be our care to guard ourselves from partiality; and in more than one place we have seen the necessity of this caution. The members of the established church will in general also find themselves under a similar necessity to exercise their judgments. The author secures to himself their favour, by many a direct or oblique hint against their enemies the Unitarians, Socinians, Democrates, Jacobins. He speaks highly of the liturgy and the church, and thus covers his attack

tack against its preachers for not dwelling upon or not believing those points which he deems essential to Christianity. Throughout he is the advocate for piety, devotion, good order, strict and exemplary conduct. The sarcasms of a Paine put us upon our guard against the puny efforts of infidelity: the respected member of the legislature, the advocate for the Africans, carries gradually and easily his unsuspecting readers into the alluring paths of enthusiasm.

We need not dwell much on our author's description of the manners of the great. They are the trite subjects of novels, romances, plays, essays, and sermons. We have read better descriptions, whether from the serious or the comic pen. By understanding well what real Christianity is, the deviations from it in any class of society are easily distinguished. The essentials then, in our author's opinion, are a deep insight into and practical experience of the doctrines of original sin, or a full conviction of the depravity of human nature — a firm belief that there is an evil spirit in a state of open rebellion against the Supreme Being, by whose delusions we are on every day in danger of being hurried into sin — a love to Christ, from a full conviction of the deliverance of which he has been the author to mankind — a sincere acknowledgment of the terms of a sinner's acceptance with God — the belief in, and practical experience of, the operations of the Holy Spirit.

To impress more strongly on the mind of the reader the importance of these essentials, reference is continually made to the liturgy of the church of England: and without doubt, when properly explained, such are the doctrines of the church. The great question is, has Mr. Wilberforce explained them with that sobriety which is the acknowledged merit of the church? or does he not run into language which tends in a rational mind to create an opposition to the truths of the gospel? He conceives that the clergy are lax in inculcating his doctrines on the people: — and without doubt many may not pay so great an attention to them as they deserve. But there is a great difference in the disposition of men and nations, and the peculiar manner of delivering the same sentiments. In a catholic pulpit, if Mr. Wilberforce will give himself the trouble of attending divine service in a Romish chapel in England, he will find his doctrines laid down with the peculiar emphasis, with the fire and warmth, which are usual on the continent. Such a mode of delivery would not, in general, suit an English audience: nor, if any man attentively reads his Testament, does it appear that our Saviour and his apostles were accustomed to use such a species of eloquence. Their address to the people was sober and dignified: they talk little of the depravity of human nature — of looking unto Jesus. They point out the necessity

cessity of faith and repentance: and the heads of our Saviour's sermon on the mount, given in the gospel, show that his mode of discoursing was far, very far, from countenancing our author's sentiments.

For example, let us take the doctrine of human depravity. The fact is too obvious to require much explanation. It was as apparent, we presume, in our Saviour's days. Yet he does not make this the peculiar feature of his discourse, but points out at once what the faults are from which we should guard ourselves—what are the temper and disposition which we should endeavour to form in ourselves. To what purpose is it to dwell upon this human depravity, when the heart of the individual is tainted with all the pride and leaven of a Pharisee? Will not the apostle's doctrine tend more to humiliate the man—we have nothing that we do not receive from God, and all our gifts should be exercised to the good of our fellow creatures—than to fill his mind with the conviction of the general depravity of human nature, a truth which he acknowledges, and in which, as he is united with all mankind, he feels little difficulty in acknowledging that he is involved? To tell him that superstitious observances are of no weight in the sight of that God who requireth the heart, is to attack him in the tender point, to come home to his feelings. Tell him, that, in puffing himself for his superior knowledge and superior piety, he is despising his brethren, and treating God's creatures with contempt, and thus attacking the Father in the persons of his children; and there is a probability of bringing him to feel a portion of the gospel spirit. Point out to him the conduct of the publican, who did not dwell upon the depravity of human nature, but was filled with a complete sense of his own personal faults; and you may bring him to humility.

The same may be said of our author's celebrated phrase, '*Looking unto Jesus*,' repeated in capitals in several places, with a note of admiration. The metaphor used by the apostle was, without doubt, well applied: but for what purpose it should be so distinguished in the work before us, it will not be easy to assign a reason. Our Saviour is the bright example for our conduct. We are to follow it to the utmost of our power in every instance, in his love, his rational and enlarged piety, in his prudence, wisdom, sobriety, in all the virtues of his character, which are seen in every page of the gospel. But this *looking unto Jesus* must be distinguished from the false raptures of a nun looking unto the crucifix. The Saviour may be equally loved by two persons, the one of a warm, the other of a cool temperament: and the excellence of the gospel is, that it is adapted to every disposition:—the ardour of the fiery will be restrained; the cool will

will be animated with the fire of a true devotional spirit. And here we cannot help taking notice of an error which is particularly striking with respect to one class of Christians, but runs, with respect to others also, through the whole composition. The Unitarians and Socinians are continually alluded to as deficient in some of our author's essentials, and, in general, as estranged from the grand spirit of the gospel. In this we must say that our author shows very little knowledge in the history of Christian sects. He may take his knowledge of the Unitarians from those with whom he happens to be particularly acquainted. But his censures, if they really belonged to some Unitarians only, and not to any of the members of the church of England, would not be justifiable when applied to the whole body. The Unitarians are a sect, denoted by their name as distinguished from other Christians, by rejecting the belief of the Trinity: but the doctrine of atonement, of redemption, of the evil spirit, of the operations of the holy spirit, are not necessarily rejected by any one of them; and some there are, very probably, who on these points take as enthusiastic a flight as our author. It is unjustifiable to censure a whole body for the faults, if they are faults, which may belong only to a few. The Socinians are a particular class of Unitarians: and our author has probably read very few, if any, of their writings, or he would have found many of them looking unto Jesus with the same raptures as himself: for in his peculiar character in the gospel, they looked up to him with equal affection, and adored him as their redeemer.

A trifling note in this work has perhaps excited more attention than any other part, and certainly more than it deserves. In the text, the author alludes to the fast-day having been employed by some persons in feasting. In the note, Mr. Pitt is vindicated from the charge of giving an entertainment on that day. Perhaps some newspaper might have mentioned such a circumstance: but it scarcely deserved serious confutation. The public scarcely gave it a moment's thought: and this note only serves to excite the malevolent to observe, that the confutation should have been accompanied with a farther remark from one so intimately acquainted with the motions of the minister; and he might have assured the public that Mr. Pitt had attended the service of the church in the morning and afternoon — was a due time at his private devotions — partook only of a sober repast, with one or two of his pious friends — and spent the rest of the day in religious meditation and conversation. The anxiety to defend a minister from a trifling imputation in a newspaper, and the acrimony with which he speaks of Christian sectaries, deists, and infidels, have laid the author open to

to many a severe comment, which we should not choose in this place to repeat.

Zealous as our author is to rescue his friend the minister from the sarcasm of a newspaper writer, the representatives of the French nation meet with no quarter; and they are said, 'as a body, to have withdrawn their allegiance from the majesty of heaven.' Much as we may be inclined to censure a variety of acts perpetrated by both parties on the continent in the late unhappy contest, we cannot but consider every attempt to make our enemies appear more odious, by heightening real crimes, or imputing to them what they never committed, as peculiarly unjustifiable in one who pretends to greater sanctity, and a firmer attachment to Christianity, than his neighbours. So far from having withdrawn this allegiance, the representatives of the nation itself express it in their constitutional acts, which begin in the most solemn manner, in the following words. '*Le peuple Français proclame en présence de l'Etre Suprême la déclaration suivante des droits et des devoirs de l'homme et du citoyen.*' The French people proclaims, *in the presence of the Supreme Being*, the following declaration of the rights and duties of a man and a citizen.

Our author tells us that he has endeavoured to keep clear from all party spirit. We are sorry that he has not succeeded better. It is evident, from the two last paragraphs, that his mind is not duly purged from political prejudice; and we may also say, that his religious system is equally founded on a partial view of Christianity. To the serious and the sounder part of the members of the church of England, it offers dogmas which they cannot countenance; and they will lament that an author with so much zeal had not more knowledge to direct it. The higher classes, to whom the work is addressed, will not find any charms of style to secure their attention, and, being shocked at the enthusiasm prevailing in the work, will more readily excuse themselves in their corrupt practices: the evangelical teachers, as they are called, proud in the aid bestowed on them by so distinguished a member of the legislature, will applaud the work to the skies: the infidels will treat it with derision. Still it does credit to the sincerity of the author in many respects: for the truths which he would inculcate, and in which all Christians agree, are not much in fashion with the higher classes; and if he could be persuaded to correct numerous passages of his work, under the auspices of those ornaments of the bench, with whom he is doubtless acquainted, every suspicion of his want of, or we might rather say, if the language admitted it, of a superabundance of orthodoxy, being removed, it would be read with great pleasure by the members of that church to which he professes himself to be peculiarly attached.

The Origination of the Greek Verb. An Hypothesis. 8vo.
1s. Ginger. 1794.

The Greek Verb analysed. An Hypothesis. In which the Source and Structure of the Greek Language, and of Language in general, is considered. By W. Vincent, D.D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. 1795.

A Passage in Mr. Horne Tooke's *Επεα Πτεροεντα*, p. 388, (Dr. Vincent informs us) gave rise to his first treatise, which consists of neither more nor less, than the assumption of the primitive verb *εω* as the origin of all the terminations in the Greek verb, and the source of all its extensive variety.

Dr. Vincent then supposes the noun to be the root of the verb, and every verb to be the noun augmented by the Greek primitive, as nouns in our language, by the addition of *do* or *to*, become verbs. And this verb *εω* he takes to correspond to our verb, *I do*.

The doctor then conjugates this verb through some of the principal tenses in the active form, combining it with the characteristics, as they are called, of the different conjugations.

'The application of *εω* to the construction of the verb is here instanced in ten examples, which exhibit all the characteristic letters in the language; these may be called ten conjugations, or six, or four; but they are still reducible to one single form, as appears by this scheme.' p. 17.

How many conjugations a language shall have, is a question that every grammarian settles for himself upon principles of convenience. The fewer he makes, the more general are his definitions, and the more numerous his exceptions. Thus many of the French grammarians differ in the number of their conjugations.

These differences depend on custom and caprice, and are only to be considered as helps to learners, not distinctions founded on the nature of things *.

In the active and passive voices, Dr. Vincent cuts off the second future and second indefinite, and seems willing to discard the middle voice altogether, except the future and aorist. He might have observed, concerning the future tense of this voice, that it has in fact very often a passive signification; and, not unfrequently is purely transitive, as in *δηξομαι*. In his paradigm, Dr. Vincent gives the paulopostfuturum exclusively to the

* In many cases, we fear, it will be found that a violent rage for simplicity only increases the perplexity which it designed to remove.

passive voice; but why may not *τεθνηξω* have as good a claim to this title as *τεθνηξομαι*?

If we suppose the words *second future* and *second aorist* to denote a point of time really different from that which is signified by the other future and aorist, it must be owned that no such tenses exist. But if the grammarians intended no more by calling these forms second futures and aorists, than to say that they were modern forms softened down from the ancient, we see no great harm in retaining the terms. Let us only instruct our scholars to take them for no more than they are really worth,—as counters, not as real money.

Dr. Vincent seems to have misunderstood Dawes on the subject of the middle voice. Dawes allows the existence of the aorist, and denies the existence of the future. He asserts, in short, that there is no such word as *πιθουμαι**, not that *πιθουμαι* was a variation of *πεισομαι*. If occasionally two forms of the same future exist, such as *ολεσω* and *ολω*, *φευξομαι* and *φευξομαι*, they might be called, if it so pleased custom, for distinction sake, *first* and *second futures*, provided we applied these terms not to any real difference of signification in the words themselves, but to the time of their introduction into the language. Dawes speaks of both the aorists passive; but this does not prove that he denied their common origin.

This first part is concluded by five tables, the first containing the hypothetical verb *εω*, conjugated through its moods, tenses, and voices; the three next, the verb *γραφω* (or *γραφειω*) severally conjugated in the active, middle, and passive voices; the fifth, the same verb conjugated through the three voices. The actually existing parts of the verb are printed in red characters.

It may be said, does this scheme give any reason for the origin of the Greek verb? Is it any thing more, at best, than an analogy to teach learners with a little more expedition? No. But in the course of the disquisition, Dr. Vincent starts some doctrines a little more metaphysical than we have produced; such as that the word *ειμι* pre-eminently represents *existence*. He therefore supposes that *ειμι* (which he is rather disappointed to find active and not passive) is a contraction of *εω*, and *ημι* the root of the verb in *μι*.

In the Greek tenses which denote time past, the augment has puzzled many inquirers. Dr. Vincent says—

‘Why may not *ε* be an undiscovered fragment of *εω*, *εον*, or *ειμι*? Most probably of the last, and applied by the Greeks for

* He also denies the actual existence of *πιθα* (or *τυπω*) as an indicative future. But Dr. Vincent admits *γραφω* into his scheme.

denoting a time preterite : this, in the imperfect and indefinite, is taken simply ; in the perfect is covered for distinction sake by the repetition of the first consonant ; and, in the completion of the action, adds ε to ε, preterite to preterite, that is, a just pluperfect.' P. 22.

' There is reason to suspect, that some metaphysical sense lies concealed in εω as well as εἰμι ; and whether that may not be discovered by tracing up the relation between εω and εἰμι, as *cause* and *existence*, will be matter for future enquiry.' P. 29.

In the second treatise, which is much bigger than the other, the doctor pursues the subject farther—

Major rerum mihi nascitur ordo :

Majus opus moveo.

' If the first man, at the first moment of consciousness, had the power of expression, the first sentiment of his mind would be, WHAT AM I ? On these grounds I assume EXISTENCE as the primary idea. I next assume the sound expressed by the vowel E, as the simplest of articulate sounds, and as such the most suitable to express the primary idea.' P. 6.

' The sound next in simplicity to E, if not equally simple, is O, and for the same reason we assume E as the basis of existence, we shall assume O as the basis of cause.' P. 8.

With great submission, this inquiry concerning cause and existence seems to us more metaphysical than is consistent with reason and nature. It supposes that the idea of pure, simple existence, of 'being *quatenus* being,' is a first, an almost innate idea ; whereas the writers on grammar generally, we believe, teach, that verbs of existence are words that originally denoted some action, but by frequent repetition have lost their emphasis. For instance, if we suppose εω, the root of the verb substantive to be in its primitive state the same with the Latin *eo*, there would be no difficulty in adapting the signification of the verb *go*, to every sentence where now *am*, or *be*, occurs. Many other words would perform the same office, such as, *stand*, *live*, *lie*, &c. The only difficulty which can perplex tyroes, is the apparent contradiction of terms, when such phrases are required as, *I am running*, *I am dying*, which seem harsh when they are thus expressed, *I stand running*, *I live dying*.

Kuster (or some other critic), observing how frequently the Greeks substituted the infinitive for the imperative, supplied the defect by μεμνησο. Le Clerc, finding in Hesiod μεμνημενος εἶναι used imperatively, objected to this supplement, because, says he, you make tautology, if you add μεμνησο. Such clear notions

tions of the philosophy of grammar had the man who wrote an *Ars Critica*!

Page 20, the doctor says — 'The first person is represented by *iota*, I; and if I shall not be thought fanciful, I will say, I is the basis of the idea expressed by the word *UNITY*.' *Nunquam aliud natura, aliud sapientia dixit*. How many persons, utterly unacquainted with heathen Greek, use *I* and *number one* in the same sense!

On the contrary, the verb *am* or *be* will readily adopt the sense of *go*, as, 'I am to be made a captain.' So the French say, 'He was to Rome,' for 'He took a journey to Rome.'

If we compare the respective conjugations of *eo* and *sum*, we shall find the former agreeing much better than the latter with the Greek verb of existence. Witness the third person plural, *eunt*, εὐνται, and the participle, *euntes*, εὐντες.

We mean not definitively to point out this or any other verb, as the origin of the verb substantive. We only assert what we before said, that all verbs, however abstract may be the existence which they denote at present, must in their original have a plain meaning, derived from some sensible object.

This will more clearly appear from examining the other verbs in the Greek language, which signify *existence*. *Τυγχανω* is only an extension of *τευχω*, to *frame*, as *φυγγανω* is of *φευγω*; *τελεθω*, of *τελλω*, to *set*, as *θαλεθω* of *θαλλω*. *Κυρω* signifies to *reach*; *πελω*, to *approach*; *φυω*, to *plant*; and *γίγνομαι*, to *be born*.

Such being our opinions, if they are true, the foundations of Dr. Vincent's hypothesis are shaken, and consequently the superstructure must totter. We feel no pleasure in passing any censure upon the work of a learned, ingenious, and, as we are credibly informed, an amiable man.

We regret, therefore, that Dr. Vincent has wasted so much time and labour upon an inquiry which we rather think barren and unprofitable in the main. Scholars may, however, peruse many of the incidental observations with amusement or instruction. Dr. Vincent has since published a large quarto, on a subject more congenial, we believe, to his talents, the voyage of Nearchus, in which we hope and expect to find him more successful.

An Appendix, by a rev. Mr. Peter Roberts, contains the inflexions of the Welsh verbs. Those profane critics who are not disposed to think Welsh the primitive language, will scarcely be converted, when they find that *credu* is Welsh for *believe*.

Hermes unmasked; or, the Art of Speech founded on the Association of Words and Ideas. With an Answer to Dr. Vincent's Hypothesis of the Greek Verb. By Capt. Thomas Gunter Browne. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Payne. 1795.

Hermes unmasked; Letters III. and IV. containing the Mysteries of Metaphysics. With an Answer to M. le President de Brosses's System of Imitative Sound. By Capt. T. G. Browne. Small 8vo. 1s. 6d. sewed. Ridgway. 1796.

IT is seldom that we see military or naval men quit the sword and gun for the pen, and endeavour to instruct the mortals whom they have left alive. The present publication not only affords us an instance of this phenomenon, but an instance of one still rarer,—of a witty grammarian. The motto, however, with which he has adorned his title-page, is perfectly serious, and well worthy of regard. We shall therefore transcribe it. Mr. Browne's reference is to Hartley, Prop. 88.

‘ I am also inclined to believe, that the method here proposed, of considering words and sentences as impressions, whose influence upon the mind is entirely to be determined by the associations heaped upon them in the intercourses of life; and endeavouring to determine these associations, both analytically and synthetically; will cast much light upon logical subjects, and cut off the sources of many doubts and differences.’

This hypothesis (if it may be so called) captain Browne defends with much ingenuity, and ably attacks the principles of the book against which he professes to write. Some of his arguments we have adopted in the preceding article; and another remark or two we shall subjoin to our general observations.

We have already said that capt. Browne is a wit in his grammatical inquiries. We have to add that he is also a politician. Mr. H. Tooke had set him, it is true, an example in both cases. But was not Mr. Browne misled to copy his model in its faults?

We are far from proscribing all pleasantries in works even of the most serious kind. But when that which ought to be only an accessory, becomes a principal, we cannot help resenting his usurpations. Political reflections, too, may, if they be sparingly introduced, merit the praise, or at least the pardon, of the reader. But still it ought to be remembered that they are the garnish, not the meat; that a long strain of irony becomes, like strong fauces, disgusting, if administered in large doses; and that political discussions may provoke those

to indignation, who otherwise would have reaped profit and pleasure from the book.

To the general principles of association between ideas and words, we make no objection. But we think the author has done ill to mix facts with suppositions, because facts only will instruct those who want instruction, and it was idle in him to write for others. 'The name of an osier twig can convey to our imagination an idea of the action of causing.' (p. 4.) This he afterwards explains of the preposition *with*, and the noun *withe*, a willow twig. (pp. 53, 54.) This explanation being, in our opinion, just, he should have treated the subject throughout with instances equally proper, and actually existing. He might have observed of this very word *withe*, that it is not only used in our translation of the Bible, but in a much more modern book, his own admired *Gulliver's Travels*.

There are two ways of treating on the origin of language; one by considering the nature of man, and reasoning from a few simple and primary elements;—the other, by taking some one language or more as they exist, and showing, by an induction of particulars, that such and such general principles pervade the whole system. In the former of these cases, the use of ridicule or politics was injudicious; from the latter, suppositions ought to be excluded.

Capt. Browne says judiciously, (p. 5) 'Etymologists are apt to expect, when they trace words up to their *supposed origin*, that they are to find some striking resemblance of the thing.' True. And hence proceeds, perhaps, M. de Brosse's system of imitative sound,—a system so erroneous, that it is wonderful how a man of genius could espouse it. A few such imitative sounds exist in most languages; but they bear a very small proportion to the mass of words.

Capt. Browne quotes (p. 9) Swift's school for languages in Laputa, where one of the projects was 'to shorten discourse by leaving out verbs and participles, because in reality all things imaginable are but nouns.' Flushed with this authority, he goes on to illustrate the position, THAT ALL WORDS ARE NOUNS; even Mr. Horne Tooke, who is highly commended elsewhere, finds no quarter for having allowed the existence of the verb. Capt. Browne, in his wrath, utterly exterminates all adjectives, pronouns, verbs, participles, &c. &c.

We find no fault with the author for adopting in earnest any observation that was first made in jest by another; the common proverb is a sufficient apology. But we cannot help giving it as our opinion, that he has not been successful in his attempt to demolish the verb. The proposition, that all words
were

were once nouns or names, is not quite equivalent to the proposition, that all words now are names. There is one great and obvious distinction between the ideas which we have occasion to express by words. The two grand *genera* are, 1. The objects of our senses or reflections. 2. The relations and qualities of those objects. Whether, therefore, we shall call these two *genera*, names primary and secondary, subject and predicate, substance and accident, noun and verb, or with capt. Browne, name and metaphor,—if we think by this we have made any advances in knowledge, we shall resemble the man that rode round the pinfold during a dark night, and thought he had been going forward on his journey all the while.

The author gives this instance—

‘ If the child saw his brother burning the bed, he might readily exclaim—Tom! fire! bed! The mother would be alarmed; would look round, and would understand her darling orator immediately—and he must be an obstinate fool, however much he may know of Greek and Latin, who will not allow that, in this case, the name or noun *fire* has completely performed the office of the verb.’ P. 32.

The mother would be alarmed, no doubt; but the words *Tom, fire, bed*, would not explain the case completely; for they might equally mean, *Tom is on fire in the bed*.

As a specimen of our author's style and manner, we give the following passage—

‘ Why should the wording of law instruments be so absurdly constructed, and so terribly long-winded?—I answer—Whereas it is well known, that the will of many men in writing laws, as in making speeches, is to command, and not to enlighten; to mislead, and to turn to their own wicked account the person so hearing, or so reading, the said speeches and the said writings—it has therefore been found necessary to insist on their excluding, as much as possible, from such law writings and pleadings, all expressions and marks, most liable to doubtful constructions; and accordingly all those little poems commonly called beautiful epithets, are wholly excluded:—further, it is necessary to exclude, as much as may be, all pronouns and relatives, which pronouns and relatives, when admitted, might chance to be associated in the mind of the readers, sometimes with one antecedent, and sometimes with another;—or if at any time such pronoun should intrude, it is judged expedient to check the possible bad consequence, and to repeat the name or noun, in whose stead it was so intended.—Furthermore, we observe, that notwithstanding this strict and explicit process, 'tis difficult to draw out any long instrument, which shall not be liable to

false interpretations. — Such is the extent of association between words and ideas ! such is the art of speech ! And be it observed, if our peers, priests, gentlemen, and other worthy persons, be not as correct in all moral and religious business, as the said lawyers are in all matters of property, it can only be, because the people who employ them put a higher value upon the goods immediately in question in all law proceedings, than upon the matters immediately in question in religion and morality.' p. 67.

An Arrangement of British Plants ; according to the latest Improvements of the Linnæan System. To which is prefixed, an easy Introduction to the Study of Botany. Illustrated by Copper-plates. By William Withering, M. D. F. R. S. &c. &c. (Concluded from Vol. XIX. p. 396.)

IN proceeding with our analysis of this useful work, we find that to the *species* many additions have been made ; and in these, various alterations have taken place ; the latter principally (except in the *cryptogamia*) consisting of such as have been found to differ from the species described by Linnæus, either on the authority of Dr. Smith in English botany, or from the information of Mr. Afzelius, a Swedish botanist, and a pupil of Linnæus. Many new specific characters have been consequently formed, more newly translated, and others altered to accord more exactly with the species described ; in which the learned author has evinced a fundamental knowledge of the principles of the science, and must have bestowed no small portion of time and labour in the investigation necessary for that purpose. In the *fungi* a great part of the specific characters have been newly formed, and those of the *agarics* are almost exclusively the author's own. We have examined and compared many of these characters, and are satisfied with their accuracy, and think ourselves authorised in asserting that they are as neat and concise as the genius of the English language will allow. This language is nevertheless ill adapted to the brevity required for this purpose ; and were it consistent with the plan of the work, we should wish to see, in a future edition, the specific characters in Latin, even though it were thought necessary to give translations in the notes. The additions and alterations which we have noticed in the *species*, are the following—

DIANDRIA. *Veronica alpina saxatilis* and *humifusa* added on the authority of Mr. Dickson ; *fruticulosa* of the second edition being now rejected.—*Pinguicula lusitanica*, supposed villosa, but now ascertained by Dr. Smith.—*P. alpina*, before introduced doubtfully, is now left out.—*Serapias rubra*.—*Salix monandra*.—*S. retusa*, from Scotland, Dickson.—*S. acuminata*, caprea β Linn. and Hudson.—*S. cinerea*, caprea of Hud. and Lightfoot,

Lightfoot, determined by Mr. Afzelius.—*S. arenaria* is now ascertained by Dr. Smith to be *fusca* of Linnæus.—*S. hermaphrodita* of the former edition is rejected.

TRIANDRIA. *Iris Xiphium*, a very doubtful native.—*Eriophorum angustifolium* and *alpinum*; the latter found in Scotland by Dickson, the former hitherto called polystachion, but determined by Dickson not to be that species.—*Cyperus nigricans*, before *Schoenus nigricans*.—*Carex stellulata*.—*C. curta*, cinerea second edition, *brizoides* Hud. *canescens* Lightf. —*C. ovalis*, *leporina* Hud.—*C. axillaris*.—*C. intermedia*, *disticha* Hud.—*C. teretiufcula*.—*C. clandestina*.—*C. filiformis*, *tomentosa* Lightf.—*C. extensa*, *flava* β . Hud.—*C. rigida*—*C. stricta*.—*C. paludosa*.—*C. ampullacea* is now left out.—*C. capitata* is now *dioica* β , *capitata* of Linnæus not being hitherto found in Britain.—*C. spicata* is now *muricata* β .—*C. montana*.—*C. tomentosa*.—*C. inflata*.—*C. gracilis*, now *acuta*.—*C. rostrata*, now *ampullacea*. The greater part of these additions and alterations, in the genus *Carex*, being from Dr. Goodenough's excellent paper in the Linnæan Transactions.—*Calamagrostis lanceolata*, before *arundo epigeios*.—*C. epigeios*, before *arundo calamagrostis*.—*C. arenaria*, before *arundo arenaria*.—*C. variegata*, before *phalaris arundinacea*.—*Agrostis palustris*, before a variety of *alba*.—*A. pallida*.—*A. littoralis*.—*A. nigra*.—*A. maritima*.—*A. vulgaris*, before *capillaris*.—*A. sylvatica* and *pumila* are now given as varieties of *vulgaris*. These changes in this obscure and difficult genus are the fruits of the author's industry, and have great merit.—*Poa alpina* and β *vivipara*, before β and γ of *pratensis*.—*P. rupestris*, from St. Vincent's rock.—*P. decumbens*, before *festuca decumbens*.—*P. glauca*, *alpina* β of Hudson.—*Briza maxima*, probably a rejectamentum, as we can hardly think so specious a plant could have escaped observation so long near the metropolis, if truly indigenous.—*Dactylis stricta*, Hort. Kew. before *cynosuroides*.—*Festuca tenuifolia*, before *ovina* β .—*F. lotiacea*, before *fluitans* β .—*F. amethystina* of the former edition is now made a variety of *duriufcula*.—*Bromus polymorphus*, including *mollis* and *secatinus* with the varieties of the latter.—*B. arvensis*, a doubtful species.—*Lagurus ovatus* from Guernsey, scarcely admissible as a British plant.—*Lolium arvense*, before *temulentum* β , doubtful.

TETRANDRIA. *Eriocaulon septangulare*, before *decangulare*.—*Galium montanum*, considered as different from *montanum* of Hudson, which is designated in this and the former edition by the name of *procumbens*.—*G. spurium*, *tricornis* of the last edition; the plant described there under the name of *sparium*, being only a var. of *aparine*.—*Exacum filiforme*, before *gentiana filiformis*; changed on the authority of Dr. Smith in

Eng. Botany.—*Plantago loeßlingii*, now again considered as a var. of *maritima*.—*Epimedium alpinum*.—*Sagina cerasoides*.

PENTANDRIA. *Myosotis scorpioides*, and its varieties, are now divided into two species, under the names of *palustris* and *arvensis*.—*Cynoglossum officinale* β is now *sylvaticum*.—*Primula veris* and *acaulis* now included under the name of *vulgaris*, and *elatior* continued as a distinct species.—*Cyclamen europæum*.—*Gentiana pulchella* from Cornwall.—*G. nivalis* from Scotland.—*G. collina*.—*Viola lutea*, before *grandiflora*, altered on the authority of Afzelius, who says, the *grandiflora* of Linnæus is a different plant, and that our species was unknown to Linnæus.—*Ribes spicatum*.—*Herniaria lenticulata* is now rejected.—*Tordylium maximum*, from Flora Oxon. we have good reason for thinking that the *habitats* given for this species, and *officinale*, are really the same, and that both ought not to have been admitted.—*Caucalis leptophylla*, inserted on the authority of Hort. Kew. but as *daucoides* is not in that work, it was probably an error copied from the first edition of Hudson; *caucalis leptophylla* of Linnæus having never, as we believe, been found in Great Britain, and the plant called by late authors *daucoides*, being undoubtedly that species of Linnæus.—*C. scandicina*, before *scandix anthriscus*.—*Daucus maritimus* from the S. W. coast: we suspected this to be the same as the 3d var. of *carota*, though if the description of Mr. Thompson is accurate, it must be distinct: but it should be observed that he describes the umbels as being ‘flat when in seed,’ and the specific character gives ‘umbels convex when in fruit:’ one or the other must therefore be erroneous.—*Bunium flexuosum*, supposed to be our common species, and that *bulbocastanum*, though continued, is not a native.

HEXANDRIA. *Leucoium æstivum*.—*Narcissus biflorus*.—*Scilla bifolia*, from Eng. Bot.—*Juncus uliginosus*, before a viviparous variety of *articulatus*: we have often observed it along with *articulatus*, and cannot think it any other than a var. of that species.—*J. maximus*, before *sylvaticus*.—*Rumex aureus*, now removed from *maritimus*, but we doubt whether on sufficient authority.

OCTANDRIA. *Polygonum pallidum*, before *pensylvanicum*, but here said not to be that species of Linnæus.

DECANDRIA. *Pyrola uniflora*, from English Botany.—*Saxifraga aizoides*, before *autumnalis*.—*S. moschata*, before *cæspitosa*, but not that species of Linnæus.—*S. petraea*, from Wales, App.—A glaucous variety of *dianthus deltoides* from Cheddar rocks, is introduced, and the *dianthus glaucus* of the same place is changed to *D. cæsius*, on the authority of Eng. Botany.—*D. arenarius* is rejected.—*Stellaria media*, before *alsine media*.

media.—*S. glauca*, before *graminea* β .—*S. cerasioides*, from Scotland, Dickson.—*Arenaria media*, doubtful whether distinct from *marina*.—*A. juniperina*, from Lanberris, Mr. Griffith.—*Cerastium pumilum* from Fl. Lond.—*Spergula subulata*, before *saginoides*, but changed on the authority of Mr. Afzelius.

DODECANDRIA. *Euphorbia cyparissias*, a doubtful native.

ICOSANDRIA. *Cratægus monogynia* of the last edition is now made a variety of *oxyacantha*.—*Spiræa salicifolia*, a shrub common in gardens, but introduced here on apparently good authority.—*Rubus arcticus*, from the highlands of Scotland, but without any particular *habitat* or authority.—*Potentilla aurea*, supposed to be *opaca* of Hudson; but Mr. Curtis asserts, on unquestionable authority, that *P. opaca* is no other than *verna*; and whether *aurea* be distinct from the latter or not, it does not appear clearly that both have been found in Britain.—*Tormentilla officinalis*, so named after Curtis, (*T. erecta* Linn. and Hud. *Potentilla Tormentilla* last edition); nearly allied as these two genera are, whilst they are kept separate, there can be no doubt but that this plant ought to be placed in the genus *tormentilla*.

POLYANDRIA. *Papaver maritimum*; this new species, in some respects, agrees with *argemone*, in others with *hybridum*: future observations with garden cultivation must determine its pretensions; but in a dwarfish and starved state, most of the poppies may be found with a single flower.—*Zastera oceanica*, before *marina* β .—*Anemone pratensis*, from Fl. Oxon.—*Thalictrum majus*, Mr. Robson.—*Adonis æstivalis*.—*Ranunculus gramineus*, from N. Wales.—*Ranunculus ficaria*, now restored to this genus; the reptans is continued; but we have the strongest reasons for supposing it merely a variety of *flammula*.

DIDYNAMIA. *Ajuga genevensis*.—*A. chamæpithys*, before *Teucrium chamæpithys*, but removed by Dr. Smith.—*Mentha*, the species are now reduced from eleven to nine; *villosa* being made a variety of *viridis*, and *sativa* of *arvensis*: of both we are doubtful, and particularly recommend the investigation of this obscure genus to the president of the Linnæan Society.—*Lamium dissectum*, before *purpureum* β , but cultivated by Mr. Robson, and by him ascertained to be distinct.—*Galeopsis grandiflora*, before *villosa*.—*G. cannabina*, before *tetrahit* δ .—*Origanum onites* is now made a variety of *vulgare*.—*Linnaea borealis* from Scotland, a most valuable addition to the British Flora.

TETRADYNAMIA. *Mæchia sativa*, before *Myagrum sativum*.—*Draba stellata*, from the Highlands, Dickson.—*Thlaspi perfoliatum*.—*T. hirtum* of the English authors is now made a variety of *campestre*, and, we think, rightly.—*Cardamine flexuosa*,

esa, before *parviflora*.—*Cheiranthus erysimoides* is now rejected.

MONADELPHIA. *Geranium lancastriense*, before *sanguineum* γ : the only differences in the specific characters are, '*stem upright*,' and '*stem trailing*,' which are scarcely sufficient: and though this plant when cultivated does not vary, yet as the shape and division of the leaves, and the form and disposition of the petals, are the same in both, they ought not to be separated.—*Geranium pimpinellifolium* is now made a variety of *cicutarium*, and *pufillum* is changed to *malvæfolium*.—*Malva pufilla*, before *parviflora*.—*M. verticillata* is now properly rejected, being probably a rejectamentum.

DIADELPHIA. *Fumaria intermedia* and *capnoides*, both new.—*Astragalus hypoglottis*: this plant (*arenaria* of Hudson, *danicus* of the last edition, and afterwards supposed *epiglottis* of Linnæus) is now clearly ascertained; but the reference to *Flora Danica* 614 ought to be struck out, that figure either being a different plant, or too bad a representation of ours to be quoted.—*Trifolium medium*, before *flexuosum*.—*T. maritimum*, before *stellatum*.—*T. procumbens*, before *agrarium*: this change is certainly right; but we cannot agree with the author that *T. procumbens* of Hudson and his own former editions is a variety of *filiforme*, notwithstanding its being considered as such by Linnæus; and we could give strong reasons for such an opinion, were it compatible with the limits to which we are confined.—*T. suffocatum*, now first published as an English plant.—*Medicago arabica*, before *polymorpha*.—*M. muricata*, *polymorpha* γ of Hudson, from Ray, is now made distinct.

POLYADELPHIA. *Hypericum dubium*, a new species, Dr. Smith in Eng. Bot.

SYNGENESIA. *Sonchus canadensis*, before *alpinus*, corrected in Smith's *Icones*.—*Leontodon taraxacum* is now called *L. officinale*, and the variety δ *palustre* is made a species with the name of *taraxacon*: this plant is very common, but we yet doubt of the propriety of separating it.—*Hieracium sylvaticum*, before *murorum* β .—*H. prenanthoides*, *villosum*, and *molle*; the three last, added to the British Flora from Scotland by Dickson.—*Carduus tenuiflorus*, before *inclians*.—*Gnaphalium margaritaceum*, before *americanum*.—*G. sylvaticum*, the true plant from Scotland; the *sylvaticum* of the former editions, and of Hudson, is now called *erectum*, these corrections being introduced on the authority of Dr. Smith in Eng. Bot.—*G. arvense*, *Filago arvensis*, Linn. doubtful whether the species called *montanum* by British authors be this, or whether both are natives.—*Erigeron alpinum*, from Scotland, Dickson.

—*Senecio*

—*Senecio tenuifolius*, *S. erucæfolius* of English authors, but not of Linnæus, Afzelius.—*Solidago lapponica* from Scotland, so named on the authority of Afzelius.—*Inula cylindrica*, before *I. pulicaris*, but not that species of Linnæus, Afzelius.—*Matricaria suaveolens* is now made a variety of *chamomilla*, after Hudson.—*Calendula arvensis*, from Falmouth. The following extracts will enable our readers to judge in what manner this part of the work has been executed—

‘BER’BERIS. *Calyx* 6-leaved: petals 6, with 2 glands to the claw: *style* none: *berry* superiour, 1-celled; open at the end: seeds 2 or 3.

‘B. Fruit-stalks forming bunches: thorns 3 together.

‘*Fl. dan.* 904—*Woodv.* 234—*E. bot.* 49—*Mill.* 63—*Blackw.* 65—*Fuch.* 543—*Trag.* 993—*Clus.* i. 120. 2—*Dod.* 750—*Lob. obs.* 599. 2—*Ger. em.* 1325—*Park.* 1559—*J. B.* i. 6. 54—*Ger.* 1144—*Lon.* i. 46. 1.

‘The first leaves inversely egg-shaped, between serrated and fringed, not jointed. *Leaf-scales* terminated on each side by a hair-like tooth. *Stem-leaves* alternate, the lowermost somewhat wing-cleft, with thorny teeth; the rest are changed into 3-forked thorns. The secondary leaves in pairs, oblong, serrated. Between the lowermost leaves and the thorns are concealed lesser leaves. Thus, when the leaves of the present year are changed into thorns, others will succeed to take place of them in the next. Is there any instance analogous to this? *Linn. sp. pl.* *Leaf-scales* solitary, 3-forked, changing into thorns. *Fl. succ.* In searching for the nectaries at the base of the petals when the flower is fully expanded, if you happen to touch the filaments, though ever so slightly, the anthers immediately approach the summit and burst with an explosion. *Bot. arr. ed.* i.—When the anthers are thoroughly ripe, if the bottom of the filament be irritated with a pin, or a straw, the stamen rises with a sudden spring and strikes the anther against the summit of the pistil, affording a remarkable instance of one of the means used to perform the important office of impregnation. Mr. Whately, from Dr. Sims. See also *Phil. Tr.* 1788. *Bloss.* yellow, sometimes streaked with orange. *Berries* red.

‘Common Barberry. *Pipperidge-bush.* Woods and hedges. On chalk hills. About Walden, Essex. S. May. June *.’ Vol. ii. p. 350.

‘*Trifolium*

‘* The leaves are gratefully acid. The flowers are offensive to the smell when near, but at a proper distance their odour is extremely fine. The berries are so very acid that birds will not eat them, but boiled with sugar they form a most agreeable rob or jelly. They are used likewise as a dry sweetmeat and in sugar-plumbs. An infusion of the bark in white wine is purgative. The roots boiled in lye, dye wool yellow. In Poland they dye leather of a most beautiful yellow with the bark of the root. The inner bark of the stem dyes linen

- * *Trifolium suffocatum*.—Without stem or stalk: flowers nearly sitting on the root.

Jacq. anstr. 60.

* Flowers in clusters, sitting, axillary, as it were buried in the earth. Calyx oblong, compressed, smooth, 5-cleft, segments bent back. Bloss. within the tube of the calyx, colourless. Leaves in threes, inversely egg-shaped, smooth, somewhat toothed. Linn. *Stipulae* cloven, bristle-shaped. Legum. 2-seeded; not longer than the calyx. Jacq. Every part of the plant, except the leaves, is buried in the sand. It has been overlooked on this account, nothing but leaves being visible, nobody thought of pulling them up for examination, but on putting down a knife or a stick the whole plant may be raised, and then its flowers and fruit come into view. The clusters in some of the older plants are as large as a small nut. Woodward. First found in England by Mr. Wigg, on the driest sandy part of Yarmouth Denis, near the sea. A. June—Sept. Vol. iii. p. 656.

Having now given a summary view of the additions and alterations in the first 19 classes, our limits will oblige us to contract our observations on the 20th. We must nevertheless notice the judicious changes of *Osmunda crispa*, now made a *Pteris*; and *Osmunda spicant*, which in the last edition was changed to *Acrostichum*, but now on the authority of Dr. Smith to *Blechnum*. Also the following additional species; *Acrostichum alternifolium*, *polypodium arvenicum*, *oreopteris*, *dentatum*, *spinulosum* and *trifidum*; but we cannot help remarking an error in the tabular view at the beginning of *polypodium*, where the species afterwards described under the name of *arvenicum*, is called *cambricum*.

To the genus *phascum* 4 new species have been added; to *fontinalis* 1; to *splachnum* 4; to *polytrichum* 1; to *mnium* 10; to *bryum* 27; to *hypnum* 7; to *jungermannia* 2; to *anthoceros* 1; to lichen 66; and to *tremella* 5. The greater part of these

linen of a fine yellow, with the assistance of alum.—This shrub should never be permitted to grow in corn lands, for the ears of wheat that grow near it never fill, and its influence in this respect has been known to extend as far as 3 or 4 hundred yards across a field. This very extraordinary fact merits further investigation, for, though credited in France as well as in England, Mr. Broussonet assured Dr. Smith from his own observations, that it was totally void of foundation. See F. Bot. p. 49. What then could have given rise to such an opinion, so confidently asserted, and so widely diffused? The first information I had upon the subject, was from an excellent botanist, a scrupulous observer of nature, whose accuracy could hardly be questioned, and of whose veracity I could not entertain a doubt. The year following I examined some wheat sown round a Barberry bush in this gentleman's garden, and found the greater part of the ears abortive. Knowing a very sensible farmer in whose hedge rows the Barberry was a common plant, I enquired if he had ever observed the corn near those hedges to be any how particularly affected. His reply constitutes the first part of this paragraph.

additions

additions to the mosses and lichens have been made from the collections of Mr. Griffiths in Wales, and the acute and indefatigable Dickson in Scotland and in England. Without particularly examining every article in these genera, of which *lichen* alone now includes 216 species besides varieties, every one to whom the name of Dickson is known, will readily conclude that the improvement must be considerable. We should not, however, do the learned author justice, were we to neglect remarking, that, from the careful revision of the specific characters, many of which are new,—the improved arrangement, and judicious sub-divisions of these extensive genera, which are either entirely new or much improved,—the investigation of the numerous species is much facilitated, and the confusion which must otherwise necessarily arise from their numbers, is in great measure avoided.

Twenty new species are now added to the genus *fucus*; and the *palmatus*, *elminthoides* and *defractus*, are removed to *ulva*, to which they properly belong. Some of these additions are from Mr. Woodward in the Linnæan Transactions, but the greater part from Mr. Stackhouse's *Nereis Britannica**, a most excellent work on marine plants. Of these some are entirely new species, and others such as have heretofore been considered as varieties, but are now brought forward as distinct. The arrangement of the plants in this genus is also now entirely new.

The genus *ulva* is reduced in number; *crispa*, now *tremella crispa*; *coccinea* and *conservoides*, removed to *conserva*; *capillaris*, now *fucus dasyphyllus*, and *flavescens*, a variety of *diaphana*, being rejected, and *verticillata*, a new species from Maj. Velley, added, along with those mentioned in the last article.

To the genus *conserva* five species are now added; and both this and the preceding genus are much indebted to the communications of Mr. Stackhouse.

From *byssus* seven species are subtracted, all the powdery *byssi* being now placed in the first division of the *lichens*, on the authority of Hoffman; but we cannot help thinking that great doubts may still be entertained of the propriety of this disposition. The description of *byssus fulva*, communicated by lady Elizabeth Noel, in a state of fructification, is a very curious article. This fructification bears considerable resemblance to that of some of the fuci,—an analogy which may lead to some very interesting discoveries.

The order *fungi* is introduced by the genus *merulius*, formed by Haller, to which are added, in this edition, ten species,

* Vile Crit. Rev. New Arr. for December last, p. 419.

comprising

comprising the *cantharellus*, and several analogous plants, which, instead of gills, have on their under surface only wrinkles of the same substance as the rest of the *pileus*. These plants, though included among the *agarics* by all preceding British authors, ought most undoubtedly to be separated from them. Some of those arranged by Dr. W. as *merulii*, have been hitherto considered as belonging to the genus *helvella*; and whether they ought not still to be so placed, may admit of doubt. Indeed it may be disputed whether the whole of this genus might not be united to *helvella*: we suspect that we have seen the *cantharellus* discharging its seeds in the form of powder from the *rugæ* on the under surface: and if this be confirmed, it will fully answer to the generic character of *helvella*.

The genus *agaricus*, which in the last edition, notwithstanding *merulius* had been taken out of it, was increased to the astonishing number of 216 species, besides many varieties, now includes 283 species and numerous varieties, with references to the figures of Bulliard, Schæffer, Batsch, Bolton, and other authors. In this immense mass, it is impossible for us to determine whether every reference be exact,—whether species may not be taken for varieties, or varieties for species, and whether the same plant may not have been repeated: but it is evident that the author has here laboured *con amore*, and has employed all his powers to regulate this chaos, and to produce order out of confusion, in which he has so well succeeded, that we will venture to pronounce this by far the best account of the British *agarics*, independent of plates, which has ever yet appeared. He has also certainly depended more upon his own resources, and has received less assistance in this than in any other part of the work; and the great pains which he has taken, and the ability which he has displayed in facilitating the investigation of this intricate tribe, by dividing and subdividing the genus into many distinct sections under appropriate heads, will certainly extremely promote the knowledge of these plants.

We shall give one more specimen from this truly original part of the work.

‘ *Agaricus xerampelinus*. (Schæff.) Gills golden yellow, 4 in a set: pileus fine lake red, to rich orange buff, convex, bossed; stem buff and rose, tapering upwards.

‘ *Sowerby* 31—*Schæff.* 247—*Battar.* 4. *C. just broke forth from its wrapper.*—*Mich.* 77. 1—*Clus. hist.* 272. 273.

‘ GILLS fixed, bright golden yellow, just under the edge of the pileus nearly orange, very regularly disposed 4 in a set; none of them branched; fleshy, brittle, serrated at the edge with a paler cottony matter.

‘ PILEUS

‘ **PILEUS** fine lake red, changing with age to a rich orange and buff, and every intermediate shade of these colours which render it strikingly beautiful; convex, centre bossed, edge turned down, 3 to 4 inches diameter, clothly to the touch. *Flesh* pale buff.

‘ **STEM** solid, nearly cylindrical, but gradually tapering upwards, rich buff, shaded with fine rose red; 3 to 5 inches high, $\frac{1}{2}$ inch diameter. *Flesh* pale, buffy, spongy, elastic.

‘ The most splendid of all the agarics. It is common in Italy, and is brought to the markets for sale. The ancient Romans esteemed it one of the greatest luxuries of the table. It having been made the vehicle for poison to Claudius Cæsar, by his wife Agrippina, it has been celebrated by the satiric pen of Juvenal, and the epigrammatic muse of Martial. See Schæffer, p. 65, chiefly taken from Clus. hist. 273, where the reader will find several other curious circumstances respecting it. But I am pretty well satisfied that these authors have mistaken the species, and that the above accounts ought to be transferred to the *Ag. deliciosus*, which is still as highly esteemed in modern Italy as it was in ancient Rome. The *Ag. xerampelinus* is eatable, but it has a strong heavy earthy taste, and is not at all agreeable.

‘ This plant must be very rare in this country, as it is unnoticed by any of our botanists. It was first found by my daughter in the Red Rock plantations at Edgbaston, several growing together of different ages and sizes, in a dry soil, where either a larch or a fir tree had been cut down 4 years before. A few days afterwards we found it again in company with Mr. Stackhouse, but none of our specimens were found with either curtain or ring. The specimens first gathered afforded a milky juice in greater abundance than I had ever seen in any other species, but these the next day shewed no signs of milk, neither were those gathered a few days afterwards on the same spot, at all lactescent. This first taught me that that circumstance could not be relied on as a specific distinction. It is described and figured by Clusius as being involved in a wrapper or volva, when young and about the size and shape of an egg. The curtain and its remains on the stem in form of a broad permanent ring, are also noticed by the authors referred to above, so that notwithstanding the defect of these parts in our specimens, there can be no doubt of their existence in others.

‘ *Ag. cæsaræus*. Schæffer and Bot. arr. ed. ii. Red Rock plantations, Edgbaston. 6th July, 1791; and in Sept. 1793. Fir plantations, Tettenhall, Staffordshire, amongst moss. July, 1792.

‘ * Var. 2. Pileus rich dark reddish brown; stem brown red. Mr. Stackhouse.

‘ * Var. 3. Pileus and stem golden brown. Mr. Stackhouse.

‘ * Var. 4. Pileus rich red purple: stem dusky gold colour.

Bolt. 14.

CRIT. REV. VOL. XX. June, 1797.

O

‘ * Var.

- ' * Var. 5: Pileus rich red brown, stem pinky.
- ' Schæff. 214. 215, a proliferous variation.—Schæff. 219, and 254, are other varieties of this species, but I have no evidence that they have yet been found in this island.
- ' GILLS fixed, not crowded, strong, fleshy, brittle, serrated on the edge with a brownish colour.
- ' PILEUS globular, bloomy purple, clothly to the touch, 3 inches diameter. *Flesh* thick, brittle, white.
- ' STEM solid, but spongy, 3 inches long, 1 inch diameter, dusky gold colour, brittle, pale yellow within. BOLTON.
- ' Var. 6. Gills pale buff: pileus peach bloom colour, convex when young, dimpled when full grown: stem pale yellow with a pinky tinge.
- ' GILLS fixed, numerous, pale buff, 8 in a set.
- ' PILEUS regularly convex, paler and turned down at the edge, from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 inches over, hollowed a little when old.
- ' *Flesh* white. *Curtain* yellowish white, tough, leaving a permanent broad ring on the stem.
- ' STEM solid, but pithy, yellowish white or pinky, cylindrical, 3 to 5 inches high, $\frac{1}{2}$ inch or more in diameter.
- ' On the stump of a fir or a larch, in the Red Rock plantation, Edgbaston; in clusters. 25th Sept. 1793.
- ' Maggots very soon excavate the pithy central part of the stem, forming an irregular hollow.
- ' The above are the most remarkable varieties of this very beautiful and splendid Agaric. Mr. Woodward has noticed that when discharging their seeds the edges of the gills have rather a fringed than a serrated appearance, Mr. Stackhouse always found the gills of a bright gold colour. *Pileus* of various tints, from reddish purple to rich brownish yellow; flat, often depressed in the centre, edge turned down; clothly. *Stem* thick, large, clothly to the feel, purple. Often found in clusters. This gentleman discovered and sent me three beautiful drawings of the plant prior to its appearance in any English publication. *Pileus* from 2 to 5 inches over, deep saffron colour, blended with purple tints, but often of a red brown and purplish. *Gills* constantly yellow, rather broad and full. *Stem* thick, from 1 to 4 inches long. Major Velley.
- ' *Ag. xerampelinus*. Schæff. [Fir plantations near Bath; fir woods at Clowance, Cornwall. Mr. Stackhouse.—Major Velley.—Pine grove, Ditchingham. Mr. Woodward.] Aug. Vol. iv. p. 214.

To the genus *boletus* 6 species are added; to *hydnum* 4; to *helvella* 3; to *auricularia* 1; to *peziza* 8; to *nidularia* 2. From phallus one is subtracted; the campanulatus removed to *lycoperdon*, to which it is more nearly allied; to *clavaria* 5 are added; to *lycoperdon* 6; to *reticularia* 5; to *sphaeria* 7; to *trichia* 5; and to *mucor* 4.

The

The plates of the former edition are continued; and several new ones are added, descriptive of such plants as have not hitherto been figured. In these, accuracy rather than elegance has been the object: but they are well engraved, and will give true ideas of the plants represented.

That a work, professing to give an account of all the known plants of the British islands, could not be completed by the most laborious researches of any one person, will be readily acknowledged. Dr. Withering therefore, as it appears, solicited and received information from botanists in various parts of the kingdom; and this, so far from detracting from his merit as the conductor of the work, in our opinion adds greatly to it. The greater part of the names contained in the list of contributors, will be well known to our botanical readers; and they will probably conclude with us that these persons would not have afforded their assistance, had they not, from the author's former labours, formed a high opinion of his abilities, and consequently wished to see the present edition as perfect as possible. Our readers, nevertheless, are not to consider the publication as a mere compilation from the observations of the friends and correspondents of the author; a very considerable part, as must appear from the notices in our review, is his own; and the ability which he has displayed in what is original, as well as the judgment he has evinced in the selection and arrangement of the offered matter, entitle him to our fullest approbation.

We have now given an account of the most material alterations and additions which have occurred to us during a careful perusal of this edition, and comparison of it with the former; together with such observations upon them and the work in general, as appeared most necessary. It must not, however, be supposed, that we have critically examined every separate article or expression, it being impossible, consistently with the various claims we have upon us, to refer continually to the numerous authors which would be necessary for such a scrutiny. The business of a review is rather to point out the most conspicuous excellencies or defects, and to give such a general account of a work as may lead our readers to form an opinion whether it be worthy of their farther notice. Such an examination have we now given; and we do not hesitate to recommend it as almost necessary to every student in botany, who wishes to acquire a competent knowledge of the plants of his own country: and this the rather, as the excellent *Flora* of Mr. Hudson is not only become very scarce and dear, but also because the numerous additions made to the British *Flora*, since the publication of that work, particularly in the *cryptogamia* class, as well as the various corrections from

the Linnæan Herbarium, and from the observations of many of the most experienced botanists of the present times, as far as they relate to British plants, are no-where at present to be found collected together, except in these volumes.

Remarks on the Arabian Nights' Entertainments; in which the Origin of Sindbad's Voyages, and other Oriental Fictions, is particularly considered. By Richard Hole, LL. B. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.

THESE Remarks were, it is observed in the Advertisement, first read at the meeting of a literary society at Exeter, with a view of amusing its members 'with a plausible, rather than a probable, account of the authorities by which Sindbad's narrative might be supported.' What commenced, however, in jest, soon grew more serious; and we now see the Arabian tales connected with geography, with history, and philosophy. Had not the author given this account of the progress of his inquiries, an attentive reader would probably have discovered it. The first parts are often ironical; and the author occasionally sneers with 'Cervantes' serious air:' in the latter parts he is more exact, more serious, and argumentative.

For many years the Arabian Tales were almost exclusively confined to the nursery; and when their authenticity was ascertained, and they were raised above the rank of infantine amusements, their improbability disgusted; and the little interest they excited in a reflecting mind, rendered their supposed influence on the sanguinary monarch more surprising than any of the adventures recited by his victim. This part of the subject the author notices with great propriety—

'How are we to reconcile those circumstances? Does human nature vary in different parts of the globe? or are we to consider the Arabians, notwithstanding what we have heard of them, as children in intellect, and ourselves arrived at the maturity of knowledge?

'These questions, I presume, may be easily answered, without detracting from the credit of either country; without impugning the literary merit of the Arabians, or our own taste and judgement.

'In the first place we are to observe, that the translation of this performance is both inelegant and defective; and no literary composition, under such disadvantages, can be reasonably expected to make a very favourable impression on the minds of people differing in customs, manners, language, and religion. What a wretched appearance would the fathers of classic poetry exhibit, if they were rendered into vulgar prose, and their most ornamental passages suppressed! Yet such is the case with respect to this performance. I have

have been told, by gentlemen conversant in oriental literature, that it abounds with poetical passages and moral reflections; but of these scarcely a vestige remains. We are of course as much unacquainted with the merits of the original as we should be in respect to the former beauty of a human body from contemplating its skeleton. An anatomist indeed may derive from that some idea of its pristine symmetry and proportion: and, from the translation I refer to, we perceive the structure of the original story, and the different incidents, its connecting bones and sinews. But, as from the anatomy we can form no judgement of the complexion, of the features, and graces that embellished, or of the vesture that decorated, the human frame; so neither from the incidents alone can we entertain any proper conception of those flights of poetry, or elegances of diction, which adorned the oriental composition, and rendered it an object of national admiration.' P. 8.

These tales interested the auditor by the fascinating charms of the most elegant and hyperbolical poetry frequently interspersed, which has been suppressed by the French translator; amused him by the descriptions of splendour, of riches, and of beauty, which in his limited sphere he could not expect to behold; and by those phenomena of nature, which he had learned from his infancy to believe as realities. Indeed, the immensity of the roc, that could soar with an elephant in his talons, may, for a moment, shock the imagination; yet, perhaps, a bird of this strength and magnitude would not exceed the eagle, which we know will carry off a lamb, more than the beast which furnished the fossil bones of Siberia does the elephant or hippopotamus. Within the tropics, nature stalks with gigantic majesty: all her operations are vast and splendid; nor is it surprising that the cool reasoner of more temperate climes should suspect as fabulous, or disbelieve as ridiculous, what his own experience could not in any degree support.

As many of the descriptions of the Arabian author might probably have been supported on a foundation firm and tenable, it was with some concern that we saw, in the earlier part of the volume, passages of a more ironical tendency. When Sindbad and his companions mistake the back of a whale for an island, a circumstance not ridiculously improbable, as many islands in the Indian Ocean lie almost level with the water, the author gravely observes, *how can we entertain a doubt* that they mistook the whale for one of the Lackadivi islands, which stud the sea near Cape Comorin, by which he must have shaped his course to Japan? This observation, only admissible in a ludicrous work, was probably in the first sketch, and inad-

vertently left *.—The various illustrations of many of the most fanciful, and apparently the most exaggerated descriptions, from authors of undoubted credit, and travellers of veracity, adduced in this volume, lead us to think every thing ludicrous misapplied. But as it is impossible to follow the author in his whole course of illustration, in which he displays great ingenuity, extensive reading, and considerable learning, we shall select a few passages as specimens of his attempt.

The story of the Valley of Diamonds, the Arabian author, with true Gulliverian gravity, though perhaps with serious solemnity, tells us, he 'always considered as a fable,' before he found himself there. When left in a desert island, Sindbad ties himself to the leg of a roc, by which he is carried to the valley. The roc, as already suggested, will, it is said, carry off an elephant in his claws; and this singular feat, so irreconcilable to European ideas, is supported by Marco Paulo, and father Martini, in his Chinese Atlas. The author also mentions his having seen a representation of the roc '*hawking at an elephant*,' on the cover of a Persian MS. belonging to sir J. Banks; and he farther supports the magnitude of this bird, by the comparison of a nest seen by captain Cook in an island near New Holland: and we are much mistaken if we have not seen an account of a larger one, in one of the earlier volumes of the Philosophical Transactions, from the same neighbourhood—

'However wild this narrative' (of the adventures in the Valley of Diamonds) 'may seem, it is countenanced by writers of a different cast from our author.

'The following passage is from Epiphanius "*de duodecim lapidibus rationali sacerdotis infixis.*" Francisco Turiano interprete.—"*Hyacinthus igneo propemodum colore est: in interiori Scythiæ barbarie reperitur. Veteres porro totum Boreale clima ubi Gothi morantur, ac Dauni, Scythiam appellare consueverunt. Ibi igitur in eremo magnæ Scythiæ penitiori vallis est quæ hinc atque inde montibus lapideis veluti muris cincta, hominibus est invia, longeque profundissima: ita ut e sublimi vertice montium tanquam ex mœnibus despectanti non liceat vallis solum intueri; sed ob loci profunditatem densæ adeo sunt tenebræ, ut chaos ibi quoddam esse videatur. A regibus qui illuc aliquando sunt profecti, quidam rei ad illa loca damnantur, qui mactatos agnos in vallem, detractâ pelle, projiciunt. Adhærescunt lapilli, seque ad eas carnes agglutinant. Aqu-*

* Since writing the above, we see in a note, in the Appendix, the author's cooler opinions. In reality, he finds reason to think that the scene of this 'misadventure' was near Borneo; and he there mentions also the coincidence of Olaus Wormius, who speaks of the Norwegian sailors sometimes anchoring on the back of a whale.

læ vero, quæ in illorum montium vertice degunt; nidorem carniū secutæ devolant, agnosque quibus lapilli adhæserunt exportant. Dum autem carnibus vescuntur, lapilli in cacumine montium remanent. At ii qui ad ea loca sunt damnati, observantes ubi carnes aquilæ depaverint, accurrunt feruntque lapillos."

' As Sindbad does not inform us in what part of the world he met with a valley of diamonds, it might, with sufficient appearance of probability, be supposed, that he had heard of this ideal one in Scythia, and alluded to it. If Scythia, however, should be thought too remote for our traveller's aerial excursion, a valley of the same kind is at our option in another part of the globe, and in the very track which the Arabians followed in their voyage to China.

' Marco Paulo says, "Ultra regnum Maabar [Malabar] per mille miliaria est regnum Murfili in quibusdam hujus regni montibus inveniuntur *adamantes*. Nam quum pluit egrediuntur homines ad rivos aquarum qui de montibus descendunt, et in arenâ multos legunt *adamantes*. Æstatis quoque tempore ascendunt montes cum magnâ difficultate propter ferventem calorem undique æstuantem, periculo etiam magno sese exponentes, propter *magnum serpentem*, qui ibi in maximâ versantur multitudine, et quærunt in vallibus montium atque aliis declivis et retrusis locis *adamantes*, et quidem fit, ut illos nonnunquam magnâ reperiunt copiâ: idque in hunc modum. Morantur in montibus illis aquilæ albæ quæ memoratis vescuntur serpentibus: et homines qui per montes discurrunt, et sæpe ob prærupta saxa et præcipitia montium *ad convalles pervenire non possunt, projiciunt in illas frustra recentium carniū videtibus aquilis, et hæc deinde ab aquilis sublata nonnullos habent adhærentes adamantes*, quos homines hoc ingenio venantur. *Advvertunt quo avis sublatam portet carnis portionem, et accurrentes abigunt aquilam, et lapillos carni adhærentes colligunt.*"

' This appears to be the same valley of which the Arabian author, as well as the Venetian traveller, had heard; and the tale does not appear to have been wholly imaginary. The kingdom of Golconda will agree with the kingdom of Murfilus, as the passage is rendered by Purchas. He observes, in his abstract of these travels *,

"Murfili,

* Vide Purchas's Pilgrims, vol. iii. p. 105. The Latin quotation is given from a collection of travels by Simon Grynæus, entitled, "Novus Orbis Regionum ac Insularum veteribus incognitarum," &c. printed at Basil, 1555. Muller likewise, who published an edition of Marco Paulo with notes in 1671, follows it verbatim: and, if we admit the *mille miliaria*, the diamond mines of Panna or Purna will suit as to distance better with the text than those of Golconda. Major Rennel, in his Memoirs of Hindustan, says, that they lie in a mountainous track of more than 100 miles square on the south-west side of the Jumna: and this track from Cape Comorin, the extremity of the Malabar coast, in a straight line, or as a bird flies (which we may suppose would have been Sindbad's mode of computation), is about 1000 miles. Purchas, however, follows the edition of Ramusio, of which he speaks highly, as being printed from a correct MS. of Marco Paulo, found after his death. (Pilgrims, vol. iii. p.

"Murfil, or Monful, is northward from Malabar 500 miles;" and, nearly at that distance, the richest mines of Golconda, according to modern accounts, lie among the rocks and mountains that intersect the country. The two travellers, however, vary but little, excepting that those serpents, which are the prey of Sindbad's roc, are devoured by the Venetian's eagles. The latter informs us, in the passage already quoted, that "men could not ascend the mountains without much fatigue and difficulty, on account of the intense heat: and were exposed to great danger by means of the huge serpents with which they abounded." Sindbad tells us, likewise, that he "travelled with his companions near high mountains, where there were serpents of a prodigious length, which they had the good fortune to escape." P. 54.

It may be observed that the epithet at the conclusion of the foregoing note is supported by the description of the Arabian, who always represents the roc as white. The story of the same bird, in the fifth voyage, is almost literally copied by, or from, an Arabian writer of the fourteenth century, transcribed by Bochart.

The narrative of the loadstone drawing the nails from the ships has always been considered as hyperbolical; yet we find it supported by authors of considerable credit. We shall premise the comprehensive account of the negroes of the Indian Ocean, mentioned in the same voyage—

The Mohammedan traveller in the 9th century says, that, in "the sea of Andaman, (i. e. the bay of Bengal, through which Sindbad appears to have been steering his course), the people eat human flesh quite raw, their complexion is black, their hair frizzled, their countenance and eyes frightful." Modern navigators likewise represent many islands in this bay as inhabited by cannibals, particularly those which still retain the name of Andaman: and in an age, almost as distant from the Arabian traveller as his appears to have been from ours, these very islands, or those adjacent to them, were inhabited by a race no less savage and inhospitable: *Φερονται δε και αλλαι συνεχεις δεκα νησοι εν αις φασι τα σιδηρης εχοντα ηλως, πλοια κατεχεσθαι, μη ποτε της ηρακλειας λιθου περι αυτας γεννωμενης και δια τωτο επικριοις ναυπηγισθαι κατεσχειν δε τας αυτας ανθρωποφαγους καλεμενους Μανιολας.* D'Anville places those islands of the Maniolæ on the eastern side of the bay of Bengal: but, if we are to compliment Ptolemy on the accuracy of his numeration, we must suppose that he meant not the Andaman islands, but the *ten* northern Nicobars, which are at no considerable distance from them.

65.) Ramusio was secretary to the Venetian state, and died in 1557. Vide "Navigationi et Viaggi da Ramusio." Tom. ii. p. 55. The passage, as it stands there, varies in some other respects from that in Simon Grynaeus. Storks, as well as eagles, are said to inhabit the mountains "molte aquile & cicogne bianche."

“ It is observable that the isles of Andaman are not only still inhabited by cannibals, but that these cannibals are likewise negroes. Mr. Hamilton concludes his account of the Cornicobar islands, with mentioning, that it was commonly supposed a Portuguese vessel, having a large number of Mozambique negroes on board, was wrecked on the Andamans, soon after the passage to India round the Cape of Good Hope had been discovered, and that from them their present inhabitants were descended: but, if we are to credit the Mohammedan traveller (without saying a word concerning Sindbad's testimony, or even that of Ptolemy), they were inhabited by cannibal negroes in times of much greater antiquity. There is indeed no necessity of deriving this race of people from Africa. Lieutenant Wilford observes, that various hordes of emigrants from India were negroes; and that such a race with *curled hair* existed in that part of the globe, at an early period, may be inferred from the particularity being observable in their ancient idols. He shews that the Cutila-cesas, the old Egyptians, were distinguished by the same characteristic; and on this circumstance supports the description which Herodotus gives of that ancient people. The *Iburiexes*, the strait-haired Æthiops, appear also to have emigrated from India. The most savage race in the Philippine islands likewise, the supposed original inhabitants, are said to differ but little in colour from the inhabitants of Guinea, and are called by the Spaniards, *Negritos del Monte*.

“ The account of vessels being wrecked by the attractive power of a magnetic rock in Ptolemy may have been merely figurative—the iron-stealers of Otaheite allegorised in the bay of Bengal. Yet it appears to have been a long-established opinion in the eastern world. In the history of the third Calendar we meet with a mountain of adamant possessing the same properties; and Aboulfouaris, the Sindbad of the Persian tales, is wrecked by means of a magnetic rock; for that I suppose, when stripped of its figures, must be intended by a mountain that resembled polished steel; and which, by virtue of a talisman, rendered every vessel that approached it stationary and immoveable.

“ Serapion, “ an author, says Brown, of good esteem and reasonable antiquity, asserts that the mine of this stone (the magnet) is in the sea coast of India, whereto, when ships approach, there is no iron in them which flies not like a bird unto those mountains; and therefore their ships are fastened, not with iron, but wood, for otherwise they would be torn to pieces.”

“ It is not probable that Mandeville ever saw Serapion or Ptolemy; yet he gives the same account. “ In an isle clept Crues ben schippes withouten nayles of iren or bonds, for the roches of the Ademandes: for thei ben alle fulle there aboute in that see, that it is merveye to speken of. And zif a schipp passed be tho marches and hadde outhir iren bondes or iren nayles, anon he sholde ben perisshet.

For

For the Ademande of this kynde drawethe the iren to him : and so wolde it drawe to him the schipp, because of the iren : that he sholde never departen fro it, ne never go thens."

"Aloyfius Cadamustus, who travelled to India in 1504, describes various kinds of vessels which traded from island to island for spice and other commodities. Some, he says, like those mentioned by Ptolemy, were framed entirely of wood, and for the same cause; "aliæ sunt quæ idcirco absque ferro sunt, quoniam vim magnetis pavent, nam is lapis visitur supra dictas insulas, quâ iter ipsi faciunt." P. 100.

The observations on Mandeville, which follow, are curious. His geographical accuracy is supported, it is said, by the papal authority: yet, in the very work, thus *sanctified*, the globular form of the earth, a heresy for which Galileo suffered two hundred years afterwards, is more than insinuated. This part of the subject might have been enlarged on with advantage.

The passages adduced from the Comus of Erycius Puteanus, show indisputably that Milton was much indebted to this author in his celebrated Masque; but the most curious part of the performance is tracing some of the most popular tales of Europe to the banks of the Ganges:—which tempts us to exclaim with Solomon, the justice of whose observations the mind instinctively acknowledges, and experience confirms,—“There is nothing new under the sun.” To this perhaps an exception may be made in favour of the present work, which, from a subject apparently unpromising, produces such various and interesting information, such unexpected and curious coincidences. It is a work, with the perusal of which we have been highly entertained, and which will afford no common pleasure to an enlightened inquirer.

Journal of a Tour through North Wales and Part of Shropshire; with Observations in Mineralogy, and other Branches of Natural History. By Arthur Aikin. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1797.

PERHAPS there is no class of publications more immediately subservient to the purposes of amusement than books of travels. — Very few, therefore, have met with more liberal encouragement from an indolent and illiterate age. Our modern tourists, however, it must be confessed, have sacrificed too much to this one object; and few of them have blended the useful with the entertaining. Mr. Aikin is a traveller of a different description: it is easy to see, though he has not neglected the pleasant and agreeable, that his main object is utility; and it is greatly to be regretted that we have not more works

works executed on this plan, particularly as far as regards the topography of our own country.

Mr. Aikin and his companions, Mr. Charles Kinder and Mr. Charles Rochemont Aikin, to whom the work is inscribed, set out from Shrewsbury, on the 25th of July 1796, on foot, — a mode of travelling adapted above every other to the observer of nature. In the course of his journey our author appears to have paid very particular attention to the mineralogy of the country, — a study which has hitherto been too much neglected, and in which Mr. Aikin is a proficient. — Connected with this object, he frequently notices the soil and agriculture; and, as far as his leisure permitted, he has not neglected botanical researches. On the state of manufactures he is also copious, and indeed seems to have neglected nothing that could either afford information or give pleasure to his readers. We lament that our limits will only admit of two extracts. — The one will, however, serve as a specimen of our author's powers of description, and the other of his accuracy and attention in observing whatever is curious and useful in the country through which he passed —

' The day being promising, we set off after breakfast to examine Cader Idris. A small lake, called Llyn-y-gader, lies about a mile and a half on the high road to Towyn, which having arrived at, we quitted the road and began our ascent up the first step of this lofty mountain. When we had surmounted the exterior ridge, we descended a little to a deep clear lake, which is kept constantly full by the numerous tributary torrents that fall down the surrounding rocks. Hence we climbed a second and still higher chain up a steep but not difficult track, over numerous fragments of rock detached from the higher parts: we now came to a second and more elevated lake, clear as glass, and overlooked by steep cliffs in such a manner as to resemble the crater of a volcano, of which a most accurate representation is to be seen in Wilson's excellent view of Cader Idris. Some travellers have mentioned the finding lava and other volcanic productions here; upon a strict examination however we were unable to discover any thing of the kind, nor did the water of the lake appear to differ in any respect from the purest rock water, though it was tried repeatedly with the most delicate chemical tests. A clear, loud, and distinct echo, repeats every shout that is made near the lake. We now began our last and most difficult ascent up the summit of Cader Idris itself, which when we had surmounted, we came to a small plain with two rocky heads of nearly equal height, one looking to the north, the other to the south: we made choice of that which appeared to us the most elevated, and seated ourselves on its highest pinnacle, to rest after a laborious ascent of three hours. We were now high above all the eminences within this vast expanse,
and

and as the clouds gradually cleared away, caught some grand views of the surrounding country. The huge rocks, which we before looked up to with astonishment, were now far below at our feet, and many a small lake appeared in the vallies between them. To the north, Snowdon with its dependencies shut up the scene; on the west we saw the whole curve of the bay of Cardigan, bounded at a vast distance by the Caernarvon mountains, and nearer, dashing its white breakers against the rocky coast of Merioneth. The southern horizon was bounded by Plinlimmon, and on the east the eye glanced over the lake of Bala, the two Arennig mountains, the two Arrans, the long chain of the Ferwyn mountains, to the Breddin hills on the confines of Shropshire; and dimly, in the distant horizon, was beheld the Wrekin, rising alone from the plain of Salop. Having at last satisfied our curiosity, and been thoroughly chilled by the keen air of these elevated regions, we began to descend down the side opposite to that which we had come up. The first stage led us to another beautiful mountain lake, whose cold clear waters discharge their superabundance in a full stream down the side of the mountain; all these waters abound with trout, and in some is found the Gwyniad, a fish peculiar to rocky alpine lakes. Following the course of the stream, we came on the edge of the craggy cliffs that overlook Talylllyn lake; a long and difficult ascent conducted us at last on the borders of Talylllyn, where we entered the Dolgelle road.
p. 61.

On the subject of the woollen manufactures in North Wales, Mr. Aikin observes—

“The different articles of manufacture are webs, flannels, stockings, wigs, gloves, and socks.

“Webs are distinguished by those in the trade into two sorts, I. what they call strong cloth, or high-country cloth; II. small cloth, or low-country cloth.

“I. Strong cloth is made in Merionethshire, and principally in the neighbourhood of Dolgelle and Machynlleth: at this latter place a manufactory on a small scale has lately been established, a circumstance only worth notice as marking the commencement of a change in preparing the wool, which will probably soon become general. Almost every little farmer makes webs, and few cottages in these parts are without a loom; all kinds of wool are used indiscriminately, and a considerable quantity of refuse from the wool-staplers and skimmers is collected from all quarters for this purpose. During peace much Kentish wool used to be imported. Many farmers however employ wool of their own growth, and this produces by far the best kind of cloth. The standard width of this article is $\frac{1}{2}$ yard; the length of a piece, or what is emphatically styled a *web*, is about 200 yards: this consists of two ends, each 100 yards, thus divided for the convenience of carriage. The quality is necessarily of various

rious degrees. The price during the last year has been rapidly advancing, and has added to the former value of the article, 3, 4, or 5 pence per yard. In its rough state, it may at present be purchased of the manufacturer at every price between 11 and 20 pence. The market for this cloth is Shrewsbury: it was actually the market a few years ago, but is now little more than nominally so. A market however is regularly held every Thursday, in a great room belonging to the Drapers company, into which none but the members of that corporation are admitted. To this monopoly is to be ascribed the removal of the market from Shrewsbury, as persons not of the fraternity, but who pursued the same trade, intercepted the cloth in its way to the town; so that the drapers themselves, whenever trade is brisk, are obliged to *go up into the country*, (as the phrase is) and buy goods wherever they can find them; at Dolgelle, at Machynlleth, at the villages, farm-houses, cottages, or fulling-mills. In consequence of this it is now become a custom with the principal drapers to keep servants the greater part of the year at Dolgelle or its neighbourhood, who get acquainted with the persons who make cloth, assist the poorer ones probably with small sums of money to purchase wool, and, in fact, superintend the making and dressing of the goods.

The following is the whole process undergone by this article before exportation. The wool is prepared by hand in the usual manner for the loom; when woven into cloth it is sent to the fulling-mill, where it undergoes the operations of scouring, bleaching, and milling; and is then fit for the market. When purchased by the drapers, it is treated in various ways; either it is merely committed to the shearmen, who raise the wool on one side with cards, which is called *rowing*; or it is sent again to the mill, where it is sometimes thickened to a surprising substance, which adds greatly to the price, on account of the loss in shrinking; or it is stretched, and thus made three or four inches wider, an operation which considerably enhances its value; or, lastly, it is converted into a frieze or napped cloth. It is then put under the packing press. Being formed into bales of different sizes, containing from 500 to 2000 yards, it is usually sent either to London or Liverpool, whence it is exported to Holland, Germany, and America. A quantity comparatively inconsiderable, is used at home for workmen's jackets, ironing-cloths, blankets, &c.

II. Small cloth is the produce of Denbighshire. It is entirely manufactured within the parish of the Glynn, a large tract of country, including Llangollen and Corwen. There is no established factory for this article. Small cloth is about $\frac{1}{4}$ yard narrower than strong cloth; its length is the same. The best was purchased last year at about 16 or 17 pence per yard, but this was thought a most extravagant price, 14 pence having formerly been deemed its full value. This cloth is used chiefly for dying. Some quantity is indeed

deed sent off in its native or white state, but all that is dyed is, or ought to be, of this kind; the reason of which is that the coarser sort of the high country cloth abounds with long white hairs incapable of taking the dye, called *kemps*. This fabric is made of the coarser part of the very long wool that grows round Oswestry. Of this wool the finer part is converted into a sort of flannel, called Oswestry flannel, in substance between a common Welsh flannel and a web; its breadth is $\frac{3}{4}$ yard; its value from 10 to 15 pence at Oswestry, which is the market for this article, as well as for small-cloth. There is no hall or other building at Oswestry, appropriated to the sale of woollens; but the cloths are conveyed by the venders into any garret, stable, parlour, or kitchen, that they can procure, and the purchasers hunt them out as well as they are able: the market is however confined to one or two streets. The purposes to which webs are applied abroad are various; the clothing of the slaves in the West Indies and South America creates a large demand; stockings are said to be made of them in Germany, and other parts of the continent; and the late empress of Russia at one time clothed part of her troops with them.

But flannels constitute the grand and most important of the Welsh manufactures. The texture and uses of this comfortable commodity it is unnecessary to point out. It is chiefly the produce of Montgomeryshire, but by no means confined to this county, being made in various places within a circle of about twenty miles round Welsh-Pool. There is only one manufactory of note in this line in Wales: it is at Dolobran near Pool, and is said to be a parish concern; it has been established about seven years. There are a few other infant factories at Newtown, Machynlleth, and other places, but as yet of little consequence. The adjoining county of Shropshire partakes with Wales in this capital manufacture, and being more wealthy, has in general substituted machinery to manual labour: several individuals in Shrewsbury and its neighbourhood, employ themselves successfully in this business; but by far the greatest undertaking of the kind is a factory about four or five miles from Shrewsbury, at a place called the Isle, belonging to Messrs. Cooke and Mason, and erected three years ago. The mill is situated on the neck of a horse-shoe-like winding of the Severn, whose diameter is about three hundred yards, whereas the river makes a serpentine course of nearly three miles before it arrives, from the upper part of the isthmus, at the lower: a tunnel five feet in diameter is worked through the neck, opening into the bed of the upper part of the river, and a great water wheel is placed at the other extremity: this wheel communicates motion to a vast series of machinery for spinning, fulling, and many other operations. The power that works the wheel is immense; being a solid cylinder of water, five feet in diameter, with a fall more than seventeen times greater than that of the Severn, which is itself a rapid river. Vari-

ous were the apparent difficulties, and numerous the unforeseen accidents, which combined to baffle the design, arising from floods, and a bed of loose sand lying in the direction of the tunnel; all these, however, have been at length overcome by the perseverance and great mechanical skill of Mr. Mason; and the success of the undertaking bids fair to be as complete, as in its execution it was arduous.

‘As yet by far the greater part of the thousands of pieces of flannel which are annually sold at Pool, is the produce of manual labour; but the use of machines increases, and will speedily become general. Formerly the Welsh bestowed no pains in sorting the wool; a fleece was broken into two parts, never into more than three: they have now however learnt the economy of a little more trouble, and can make distinctions of sorts to the number of seven or eight: the consequence is a great variation in the texture of flannels, and some have been sold as low as sixpence, while others have been disposed of at four shillings per yard. Coarse goods are at present very scarce, and extravagantly dear, none being to be had under 11 or 12 pence per yard. The market at Pool is once a fortnight, on Monday. Each manufacturer used to bring hither his own goods, but of late a set of middle men has sprung up called Welsh drapers, a sort of jobbers or forestallers, who go about the country to the different cottages, and buy all the flannel that they can lay their hands upon. Their number increases, and with it the price of flannel, so that shortly the whole trade of selling at the market will be in their hands. These men generally have large lots of cloth, from eight to twenty pieces, each 100 yards on an average, out of which they will not sell a *single* piece but at an advanced price, by which means they get rid of many ordinary and damaged articles. At this market nothing is bought upon credit, every piece being paid for as soon as measured, in hard cash, or bank notes: it is the same with webs, and the rest of the Welsh woollen manufactures; whoever purchases must deposit the value in ready money, and pay the carriage home of the goods bought. No calculation has been made of the number of yards manufactured, nor indeed is it conjecturable. Very little flannel is immediately exported by the Shrewsbury drapers, who, for the most part, sell their goods to the London merchants: by these, flannels, as well as other woollens, are sent to the continent, to America, and to the West Indies: the chief demand however is inland. It is impossible to tell the number of pieces exported, except by inquiries at the ports; for though each draper may know the proportion exported of his own goods, yet no one is acquainted with what his neighbour exports.

† Flannels, and cloths, i. e. webs, are dyed of various colours; but not in Wales, except what is consumed at home; and indeed it is seldom that a Welshman (among the lower classes) wears a coat that is not made in the principality: the usual colours are blue, drab, brown,

brown, or mixed. Considerable quantities are dyed in Shrewsbury, and there is a dye-house at Le-Botwood, near Dorrington, chiefly for this purpose. Some flannels also have been sent into Lancashire, or the borders of Yorkshire, to be dyed; but this is by no means a common practice. More webs than flannels are dyed; but of the webs, far more are sent off in the white, than in colours.

As to the fulling-mills, there is nothing peculiar in their construction; it may however be remarked that the stocks or hammers are not so heavy for flannels as webs.

Stockings, wigs, socks, gloves, and other small knit articles, are sold chiefly at Bala, being made in the town and neighbourhood; they are generally purchased by Welsh hosiers, who travel through the adjoining English counties, and supply the shops and warehouses; from the latter they are dispersed through the island. Stockings are of all colours, greys of a thousand shades, white, blue, red, &c. from six to nine shillings per dozen. p. 70.

From these extracts the reader will perceive that the style of Mr. Aikin is pure, correct, and unaffected. — He possesses a copious fund of natural knowledge, without the pedantry incidental to young writers; and the work will, we doubt not, prove an acceptable present to the lovers of natural history, and a very pleasing companion to any traveller who undertakes the whole or any part of this interesting tour.

The Iliad of Homer. Translated by Alexander Pope, Esq. A new Edition, with additional Notes, critical and illustrative, by Gilbert Wakefield, B. A. 6 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 2s. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.

POPE's version of Homer is rather a paraphrase than a translation; but its poetical merits are universally acknowledged. The notes, which he and his co-adjutors annexed to it, are sometimes trifling, but are frequently useful; and the work may be read with pleasure by the scholar, and with improvement and instruction by the unlearned.

Though this is a copious work, our review of it will necessarily be short, as it is only our business to take a survey of the additions made by the editor. The notes subjoined to the translator's preface, and to the essay on Homer, are not of sufficient importance to delay our progress to the more immediate accompaniments of the poem.

Mr. Wakefield is not content with acting as a mere critic; but is desirous of displaying his poetical talents in the version of particular passages. He affects, however, to undervalue his attempts in this way, by saying, that, when he gives 'a
6 literal

literal copy of the original in equal compass,' he does not offer it 'as a proper and complete version by any means, but as the only method of notifying to the English reader the deviations, the omissions, the amplifications, the additions, and the embellishments of our poet.'

For these lines of Pope—

' Whose limbs unbury'd, on the naked shore,
Devouring dogs and hungry vultures tore,'

our editor proposes the following couplet—

' Whose limbs, defenceless, and neglected, lay,
To ev'ry dog, and ev'ry fowl, a prey.'

He prefers *every* in this case, as a word which points out the 'utterly abandoned and defenceless state' of the bodies of the 'fallen chiefs, secure from no animals, however small, feeble, and irresolute.' This alteration is more emphatical, as well as more consonant with the terms of the original—

ΚΥΝΕΣΣΙΝ, ΟΙΩΝΟΙΣΙ ΤΕ ΠΑΤΙ.

The greater part of the additional notes to the first book consist of comparisons of other versions with that of Pope. In this survey, praise is frequently bestowed on the attempts of Travers; and even Ogilby, of whom Pope has spoken very contemptuously, is sometimes quoted with approbation.

The new annotations to the second book also abound with quotations from the works of various translators of Homer; and the beauties as well as the faults of Pope are properly noticed. The poet appears to have borrowed many expressions and phrases from the old versions, of which he made more use than his admirers would perhaps wish to know.

With respect to the disputed phrase, ΕΙΠΟΤ' ΕΝΥ ΥΕ, which Pope has rendered

' And oh! that still he bore a brother's name!'

Book iii. ver. 238.

the editor is of opinion that the sense may be represented thus—

' My brother once, if I may use that name!'

This is nearer to the original, than the words of Pope are.

A line inserted by the poet (ver. 288), is praised as a noble addition, which compensates a thousand imperfections. This is the passage—

' Our ears refute the censure of our eyes.'

It certainly is not unpoetical; but it does not merit the hyperbolical praise which it here receives.

CRIT. REV. VOL. XX. June, 1797.

P

In

In the fourth book (ver. 550), Mr. Wakefield proposes the following correction—

' Short was his date ! he falls by Ajax *there*,
Nor lives to recompense his parents' care.'

But the real difference of sense is inconsiderable, between this alteration and the words of Pope—

' Short was his date ! by dreadful Ajax slain,
He falls, and renders all their cares in vain !'

and the termination of the former of the proposed lines may be pronounced awkward and vulgar. If Pope had thus written, he would have been severely censured by the editor, who is generally as warm in his expressions of disgust, as he is in his effusions of panegyric.

He, with greater propriety, recommends *fondness vain*, for *cares in vain*, the preposition in this instance being ungrammatically introduced.

The phrase, 'he try'd the fourth,' (book v. ver. 531) is stigmatised as *nonsense* : but this censure is too harsh. There is merely an *ellipsis* of the word *time* ; an omission which is indeed inelegant, but which corresponds with the original ; for Homer, in this place, uses *τα τεταπρον*, without expressing the noun with which that numerical adjective agrees.

Referring to the substitution of *field's* for *field is*, the editor observes, that the 'absorption of the verb substantive is always low and clumsy ;' but we would hint to him, that it is not so inexcusable as his substitution (in words to which custom has not extended the practice) of *t* for the termination *ed* ; a barbarous pseudography, which his notes frequently exhibit ; as *helpt* for *helped*, *piered* for *pierced*, &c.

We are pleased with a note which applauds this verse (book vi. ver. 196)—

' Lov'd for that valour which preserves mankind.'

' The original says only, *lovely fortitude*. Nothing can exceed the felicity of this line, in my opinion ; characteristic of true heroism.'

The epithet *thronging* is justly reprehended in the following passage—

' The *thronging* troops obscure the dusky fields.'

Book vii. ver. 69.

' The epithet *thronging* conveys an idea of *progression*, whereas the troops were sitting down.'

In the speech of Jupiter to Juno and Minerva (book viii.) are these lines—

' Soon

' Soon was your battle o'er : proud Troy retir'd
Before your face, and in your wrath expir'd.'

Mr. Wakefield affirms, that ' there is not a vestige of Homer here.' But a comparison with the original will prove the contrary.

In an attempt to approximate a couplet in the tenth book (verses 267, 268.) to the strict sense of Homer, the editor is not unsuccessful—

' Alone, though Wisdom's self the breast inspire,
Slow is our wit, and languid is our fire.'

For want of attention, a line which occurs in the next book (ver. 973) is represented as an interpolation—

' Th' event of things the Gods alone can view.'

But it does not fall under that description ; for it answers to these words of the Greek poet—*πῶς τ' ἀπ' εἰς ταδε ἐργα* ;

The animation which a critic of taste feels when he is examining a beautiful work, frequently appears in the effusions of our annotator. Having altered a couplet (book xiii.), he exclaims—' What reader, whose nerves vibrate to the thrilling impulse of divine poesy, would with the glorious enthusiasm of Pope, with all its deviations, to be exchanged for the cold fidelity of his uninspired editor.'

The efforts of Mr. Wakefield are exerted, with a spirited rather than a *cold fidelity*, in the passage which follows (book xv. ver. 596, &c.)—

' What? if our fleet shall fall by Hector's hand,
Hope ye on foot to reach your native land?
Hear ye not Hector call his hosts of Troy
To bring their fire-brands, and our ships destroy?
He bids his heroes to the fight advance,
Not the gay pleasures of the peaceful dance.'

Speaking of a *whole passage* which, he thinks, is *divinely executed* (book xviii.) he yet proposes the improvement of a couplet belonging to it. Why should he endeavour, except for the purpose of greater fidelity (which, in this place, he does not attempt), to improve that which he considers as supremely excellent?

In the twenty-first book (ver. 121, &c.) four lines which are entitled to praise, are offered as substitutes—

' E'en me resistless Death will make his prey,
At early dawn, at twilight, or mid-day.
Some lance shall pierce me, or some leather'd dart,
'Twang'd from the fatal bow, transfix my heart.'

The idea of 'doubling as they roll' (book xxiii. ver. 411) is attributed, not without reason, to misconception.

'The words κυκλῶ ποικίλοις, in the original, are in connexion with the substantive πλημυτή, and not with the words ἀκρον ἰκεσθαι. Homer, in short, means no more than what Horace very elegantly expresses in his first ode: *metaque fervidis evitata rotis*; the whole force of which sentence resides in the participle.'

In the opinion of some critics, the last line of the Iliad is weakened by the terminating verse of the couplet which Pope has substituted for it.

'Such honours Ilion to her hero paid;
And peaceful slept the mighty Hector's shade.'

The additional thought, however, and the expressions of the translator, appear to us to be very poetical; and we agree with the editor, by whom it is said that this is 'a grand couplet, and a noble conclusion of a poem, durable with the language and literature of Britain!'

From our survey of these labours of Mr. Wakefield, we deem ourselves authorised to pronounce, that some of his notes are ill-founded, but that many of them display cultivation, taste, and spirit.

A Treatise on Nervous Diseases; in which are introduced some Observations on the Structure and Functions of the Nervous System; and such an Investigation of the Symptoms and Causes of these Diseases as may lead to a rational and successful Method of Cure. By Sayer Walker, M. D. &c. &c. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.

WHY the present tract is dignified with the title of 'A Treatise on Nervous Diseases,' we are at a loss to determine, as its contents by no means justify any claim to such a designation. The author, so far from having considered the nature of nervous disorders, has not even treated distinctly of any one of the various complaints comprehended under that very extensive class. To us, indeed, his views seem to have been directed to a different object,—the explanation of the particular or leading symptoms that characterise affections of the *nervous* kind. This seems evident from the following passage—

'If it had been the author's design to treat systematically of those diseases, which are classed under Spasmi and Debilitates by Sauvages, or under Neuroses by Dr. Cullen, he might have availed himself of the mode of arrangement adopted by these celebrated nosologists: but

but as it was not his design to treat particularly and distinctly of hysteria, hypochondriasis, or dyspepsia; of apoplexy, paralysis, or epilepsy; but of symptoms which are more nearly or more remotely connected with each of them; so, observing that these symptoms occur in patients, who have never been visited by a distinct paroxysm of either of these diseases, it became necessary to give a general history of them, in the manner in which they most usually occur, and without any regard to a particular nosological arrangement.' P. xi.

The rest of the writer's plan is so well and so fully described by himself in the Preface, that we may insert it in his own words—

'After some remarks on the structure and functions of the nervous system, a large detail is given of sensations described by the patient, or symptoms which have occurred to the notice of the practitioner. These are arranged under the different functions which are affected by them; and the morbid state of the circulating, respiratory, and other actions of the system, as influenced by these diseases, is pointed out. The subjects most liable to the influence of these complaints, from some peculiarity of temperament, are described; and in connexion with this, some of the causes, which operate more immediately or more remotely in the production of the diseases, are enumerated.

'In treating of the method of cure, the attention is first directed to the general circumstances under which the disease appears, or with which it may be more immediately connected; and afterwards the more particular mode of obviating urgent symptoms is pointed out, and such an attention to regimen and diet is recommended, as may conspire, with the use of proper medicines, gradually to conduct the patient to the enjoyment of health and vigour.' P. xii.

Dr. Walker sets out, in his investigation of the causes of these disorders, with a cursory examination of the structure and functions of those organs which are supposed to form the principal seat of *nervous* affections. In his remarks, we do not, however, perceive any thing that can much benefit the medical inquirer. The doctor has done little more than travel over the old ground, and collect such facts and observations from the writings of those who have preceded him in the same track, as suited the purpose of the present work.

In considering the symptoms of nervous diseases, the author is more successful: for though the great variety and irregularity of symptoms attending these complaints render their history a matter of considerable difficulty, he seems to have traced them with a tolerable degree of accuracy and discrimination. This will be in some degree evident, from his

account of those symptoms which present themselves where the circulating system has suffered some derangement of its functions.

‘ An intermitting pulse is not an unfrequent symptom, and I have sometimes observed that the artery loses a stroke pretty regularly after a certain number of pulsations. But, though weak, irregular, and intermitting pulsation is the more striking character of the circulating function in these patients, you will sometimes observe a full and steady pulse, rather inclining to a morbid slowness. This has usually been considered as an indication of some affection of the head, and has, sometimes, been the forerunner of the more alarming and dangerous nervous affections. It, however, may be viewed as an indication of some oppression on the system, for which, as will be seen when the cure of this disease is treated of, some particular remedies are necessary.

‘ Another symptom, dependent upon the circulating system, and which is not uncommon in these complaints, is, a palpitation of the heart. This affection, to which all persons are more or less subject on some occasions, is more frequently and more easily produced in those who are subject to other nervous symptoms. In many cases it may be considered as an idiopathic disease; but, in the present instance, it must be referred to the general irritability of the system, and particularly of the organ in question: and when it occurs only occasionally, and can be traced to some particular external circumstance, it is no sign of organic læsion, but only of temporary derangement of function.

‘ Whilst treating of the deranged functions of the circulating system, we may take notice of syncope as another symptom of nervous affection. A sudden paleness of countenance, loss of strength, and a temporary suspension or diminution of vital action, will sometimes take place after any extraordinary exercise or exertion; or, at other times, will be occasioned by some sudden surprise. These causes, indeed, will produce some hysteric affections, in such subjects, more frequently than fainting; the latter, however, is sometimes the consequence. The brain and nerves, by their influence, regulate the movements of the heart, and this organ has a reciprocal influence upon the brain and nerves: so that the hysteric passion, as it has been called, and syncope, though distinct affections, are very nearly allied, and may often stand in the relation of cause and effect.

‘ In nervous patients, the head will often prove the seat of pain and uneasiness. When we consider the near relation between the brain and nerves, we need not wonder that every part, in the vicinity of the former, should participate in the diseases we are considering. Patients are, therefore, frequently referring to their head as the seat of various unpleasant sensations; sometimes they com-
plain

plain of that pain which is distinguished by the term head-ach: this is often affected by the least motion, and a perfect stillness is necessary to prevent an aggravation of this symptom.

‘ That spasmodic affection, which has been called *clavus hystericus*, is oftentimes very troublesome. The patient feels a weight or stricture on some portion of the muscles of the cranium, as if a particular part were pressed upon; or the stricture is more general; and resembles the sensation of a cord tightly bound around the head. Sometimes, the pain is chiefly on one side of the head, which is also affected with a degree of numbness; at another time, it is in the forehead, between the eye-brows, and one or both of the eyes are affected.’ p. 63.

We shall pass over the author’s remarks on persons most liable to be affected with these diseases, as well as those respecting their termination, and the series of symptoms that distinguish them from other disorders to which they have some resemblance, as containing little that can interest the medical practitioner, either from their novelty, or the manner in which they are introduced. Nor, in tracing the causes of this class of diseases, can we discover that Dr. Walker has deviated into any untrodden path. The sources of these complaints are not exposed to the view of the practitioner in any new manner, nor with more clearness or precision than in the writings of those who have gone before him in handling the same subject. The opinions of a few authors on nervous affections are merely compressed into a narrower compass.

The sum of our knowledge respecting the proximate cause of diseases of this kind is stated in the subsequent passage—

‘ A too great delicacy and sensibility of the nervous system has been frequently assigned as the most common occasion of these diseases; but, perhaps, the most general cause to which they can be ascribed, is an irregularity in the functions of the nervous system. If we take this as our genus, we may, under this, rank the several species of quick and slow action, of strong and weak action, of more or less acute sensation; each of which is connected with the different phenomena that have been mentioned. We have observed that this irregularity has been discovered in the different functions of digestion, circulation, secretion, the peristaltic motion of the intestines, and the different actions of the muscles, voluntary and involuntary; and to this we may, probably, refer all that variety of unpleasant sensations, of which the patient so frequently complains, and which so strongly characterizes these diseases.’ p. 136.

Surely after *this* explanation, the practitioner can be at no loss! He may say with the poet—

Felix qui potuit rerum cognoscere causas!

Let us now turn to the author's mode of treating those harassing disorders that originate from the causes *thus* clearly explained. By way of introduction we are here told, that—

‘ It is not in the use of any one medicine, nor of all the medicines of the same class, that any relief, much less that a total removal of the disease, can be expected. It is not merely in the use of nervines and cordials, of antispasmodics, of stimulants, or tonics, that we can hope for success; but in a judicious attention to circumstances, which occur to our notice in the study and treatment of different cases. But for want of knowing or considering this, the patient is disappointed, if success does not attend the first effort, or if a few draughts or pills do not remove every symptom, and leave him in the possession of perfect health.’ p. 142.

In the curative management of nervous complaints, the author directs the attention of the practitioner principally to two points,—a *general* plan of treatment, and the treatment of *particular symptoms*. In accomplishing the first, particular regard is to be had ‘ to the general temperament or constitution of the patient; to the occasional circumstances under which the disease has made its approach; to the state of the whole alimentary canal, and to the reduction of the irregular actions of the moving system, nearer to a steady and healthy standard.’ In the removal of particular symptoms, the advice of this physician differs very little from that of other writers.

In short, the chief circumstances in which the practice here recommended differs from that which has been generally followed, are, a somewhat more free evacuation of the bowels, a greater regard to the obviating of topical congestions, and a stricter attention to the management of the mind.

A Summary View of the present Population of the principal Cities and Towns of France, compared with the principal Cities and Towns of Great Britain and Ireland. By an Unprejudiced Traveller. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Kearsley. 1797.

THROUGH some inadvertency or oversight in the author of this publication, it is made to consist only of an Advertisement, an Introduction, and an Appendix. Notwithstanding this want of method in point of arrangement, however, and, we may also add, the inadequacy of its title to convey a full idea of its contents, the work, in a general view, is respectable both for matter and style.

The author considers the present a fit occasion—

‘ For

‘ For exhibiting to public view a concise statement of the population of the principal cities and towns of the two empires ; from which we may, in a great measure, deduce an estimate of their comparative strength, and properly meet the exaggerations and fanfaronnade of a government, which, without one fourth part of our naval power, now threatens a descent on these coasts, for the purpose of subjugating (with as much facility as they have done the degenerate and nerveless race of Lombardy) a people famed in battle, and spirited as themselves.’ p. iii.

The method taken in this comparative calculation is thus described—

‘ The cities and towns of France, and of Great Britain and Ireland, here stated, are at a medium of various computations, strictly scrutinized by the author, upon his own immediate local inquiry ; their suburbs and dependencies, closely adjacent, being included :—Thus—Southwark is added to London, Gosport to Portsmouth, Leith to Edinburgh, Plymouth-dock and Stonehouse to Plymouth town ; la Recouvrance is reckoned as a part of Brest ; we cross the Seine to complete the population of Rouen ; have joined le Pollet to Dieppe, and the scattered bastides to Marseilles.’

p. i.

That our readers may judge for themselves, how far the author’s calculations are admissible, we extract the following portion from p. 3.

FRANCE.			G. BRITAIN AND IRELAND.	
	1st Jan.	1st July,		1st July,
	1789.	1796.		1796.
*Paris	850.000	600.000	London, with Westminster and Southwark	900.000
Bordeaux	145.000	115.000	Dublin (Ireland)	170.000
Lyon	150.000	100.000	Bristol	86.000
Marseille	100.000	70.000	Manchester	80.000
Toulouse	80.000	58.000	Cork (Ireland)	78.000
Rouen	90.000	70.000	Norwich	80.000
Nantes	78.000	50.000	Edinburgh (with Leith) Scot.	78.000
Rennes	60.000	40.000	Liverpool	76.000
Strasbourg	76.000	55.000	Birmingham	65.000
†Lille	70.000	48.000	Exeter	42.000
Caen	50.000	40.000	Newcastle	50.000
Metz	42.000	33.000	Coventry	34.000
Montpellier	40.000	30.000	Glasgow (with Port Glasgow)	42.000
Amiens	42.000	32.000	York	38.000
Orleans	40.000	30.000	Leeds	43.000
Valenciennes	38.000	26.000	Aberdeen, New and Old (Sc.)	34.000
Total of these		1st July,	Total of the above 15	
16 Towns,	1.951.000	1796,	Towns, 1st July, 1796	1.937.000
1st Jan. 1789.		1.397.000		

* Greatly enlarged, by extending the barriers, in 1788.

† Transient garrisons are not comprehended in the population of fortified towns ; such as Lille, Metz, Landau, &c.

In

In this account, the author supposes the French revolution to have commenced on the 1st of January, 1789, though the Bastille was taken in July following. After completing the detail, he continues—

‘ The foregoing columns present to our readers a list of one hundred cities and towns of France, compared with as many cities and towns of Great Britain and Ireland: the former are computed, upon the fairest investigation, at two distinct periods, viz. at the beginning of the revolution (seven years since) and at the present day. Their number of inhabitants, in the total, stands thus :

1st Jan. 1789. 1st July, 1796.		1st July, 1796.	
700 French cities and towns	} 3,253,000 — 2,307,000	100 cities and towns of Gr. Brit. & Ireland	} 3,156,000

‘ Paris has been much enlarged in its circuit, during the last eight years, by taking within its barrier, Chaillot to the west, and several villages towards the south-west and south.

‘ The calculations upon its number of inhabitants, which have from time to time been published by many literary authorities, differ in an unaccountable degree.—The marquis de Buffon reckoned them, 25 years ago, no more than 700,000. He found that the births and burials had long been at an equilibrium; that the mortuary extracts gave 24,000 persons in 1740, and in 1709 had amounted to 30,000. He adds, that both the winters of 1709 and 1740 were remarkably severe.

‘ Now, the inhabitants of Paris were certainly fewer in 1709 than in 1771, by at least one hundred thousand; of course, one of twenty must have died in 1709. An extraordinary mortality indeed! if another supposition of that celebrated naturalist be just, that, “the life of man may be estimated at 33 years.”

‘ Mons. Moreau agrees nearly with Buffon, as to the population of Paris.

‘ L’abbé D’Expilly (of whom we shall take due notice hereafter) does not allow so many; while Mercier, a writer deservedly in great credit, and still living, contends, in his *Tableau de Paris* (vol. 4 & 8.) that Paris contained near 900,000 souls in the year 1782.

‘ Some extravagant journalists, when a decrease rapidly began, in 1790, carried its number beyond one million. Certain it is, the inhabitants, in September, 1795, did not exceed 600,000, as was proved by the consumption of bread and flour, daily reported, by the municipal officers, to government. Nor is such a reduction to be wondered at, when we reflect on the bloody scenes repeatedly exhibited in the streets of Paris, and the immense draughts made, under the jacobin auspices, for the armies of the republic, which have so visibly thinned the once-thronged faubourgs of St. Marceau and St. Antoine.—We shall admit there is sometimes a vast shew

of people in the sections called La Butte des Moulins, Le Pelletier, and that of the Thuilleries, and of Brutus, as well as one or two more sections in the vicinity of the Palais Royal; but the extensive quarter of St. Germain des prés is almost a desert; and take Paris upon the whole—a woeful and most deformed caricatura of its former majesty and beauty, is its true picture.

‘The environs of Paris are not near so populous as the environs of London.—This is a fact too manifest for any doubt.’ p. 6.

The principal cities of France are next taken individually; and the author briefly recites those events which, during the ferment of the revolutionary measures, tended to affect their population and trade. Among these melancholy pictures, we find not only much interesting but also much novel matter; and, were we not induced rather to give place to such of the author’s remarks as affect a very material public question at present, we should most gladly gratify our readers with an extract or two. For those particulars, however, we must of necessity refer to the work, which, notwithstanding our aversion to the war, and the author’s disposition to encourage it by various representations that we think exceedingly disputable, is certainly both an able and entertaining performance.

Although our traveller professes to think with Mr. Burke, as to the necessity of obtaining peace by war, he differs from him most pointedly as to the predominance of jacobinical opinions, not only in Britain but in France.

‘That “in England and Scotland, of the part of the community (supposed 400,000) who have means of information, and above mental dependance, there are 80,000 pure jacobins, virtually incorporated into the cabal in France,” seems a most hyperbolic proposition. The author of the Two Letters has candidly acknowledged his fear, and fear, we know, is a very imperfect master of accompts:—let us, then, rather hope, and believe, that, (like Scrub in the comedy) he has terribly multiplied his thieves. This may be confidently averred, that, if we actually have among us 80,000 jacobins of such description, they much exceed in number what are now remaining throughout the whole republic of France. The tempestuous reign of jacobinism is there at an end, most probably for ever; it triumphed eighteen months in its full atrocity, from the decollation of Louis XVI, to that of Robespierre.—The waves of the ocean, after a dreadful storm, still swell, and long continue agitated, though the fury of the gale be spent: it is by their gradual subsiding, not a sudden and dead calm, that the labouring vessel becomes righted, and steers her course with safety. The French jacobins got a very sickening blow on the choice of a *nouveau tiers* to the legislative council, in September, 1795, and are likely

likely to receive their final *coup de grace* two months hence, by the change of another third.

‘And however we may censure, hate, or dread, the system of politics which still keeps the ascendant in France, let us not utterly shut up our faculties to candour and justice: we shall then soon satisfy ourselves, that a majority of the people in France are no more jacobins than Mr. Burke. It would now be safer for a jacobin to declare himself such in the drawing-room at St. James’s, than in the public market place of any considerable town of the republic. Mr. Burke, against his own rule, “judges of the generality of the opinion by the noise of the acclamation.” The French, in general, regard the jacobins as the disgrace, and pest, of society; that have, indeed, sown seeds of the most flagitious principles in other countries, but, in their own, have carried those principles into rueful practice—have deluged France with blood, despoiled the rich patrimony bestowed on her by nature, and rendered the name of a Frenchman universally shuddered at and abhorred: government is therefore bent upon their subjugation, and, if possible, to obliterate every vestige of their cannibalism; but it is not to be done by an uncircumspect and hasty violence; to confound the characters, public or private, of such men as Boissy D’Anglas, Barthelemy, Pichegru, Thibadeau, Lanjounois, Gopilleau, Garnier de L’Aube, Dumas, &c. with Barrere, Billaud, Isnard, Hebert, Santerre, Chaumette, Collot, citizen Egalité, and Drouet, would be full as unfair, and as absurd, as to brand the innovation in church and state, attempted by the first Condé, and De Coligny, with the same infamy as appertains to Jean Bon-homme and his villainous ragamuffins, in the reign of Charles VI; or to estimate our Hampden, Holles, and Sidney, no better than the Tylers, the Straws, and the Cades.

‘France is, in our apprehension, no longer to be feared by Great Britain, “as France, nor as Jacobin France,” but as France with her colonies restored to her, and left in peaceable possession of the Low Countries; to add three million of subjects to her diminished population; to appropriate exclusively to herself, the traffic and toil of those territories:—to cut off absolutely all access to us, with South Germany and Switzerland; to open the Scheldt—re-found an emporium at Antwerp—keep Holland in subjection—extend her coasting navigation—and approximate her domain to the Baltic countries, from whence she draws her naval stores.

‘Fidelity to our ally, the emperor, lays us under an obligation to struggle for a recovery of what has been taken from him during our partnership in the contest. The steady and intrepid conduct of that prince makes some amends for the recreant defection of others; who, while the French democrats are busy to excite hatred towards them in one half of Europe, take infinite pains, by their crouch-

ing timidity, to inspire the remaining half with a most humiliating contempt.

‘ But is it merely to serve the purposes of an emperor of Germany, that we are to continue the war?—Certainly not. The measure is become indispensibly requisite for the preservation of ourselves, and our posterity. We are aware of the maxim, often repeated, and founded on very learned classical authority, that “A bad peace is preferable to the most successful war.” It far from applies to the present purpose; for by such terms as the French republic now indicates a disposition to listen to, our ruin must follow: whereas, by pursuing the war with success (and, if our means are well employed, we perceive no gloomy perspective of the reverse) we secure a permanent tranquillity, probably for ages to come.—Dictators aboard our ships, we choose the field of contention for our armies; and there is this material difference between conquests made by the enemy, and our’s—that what they have won by the campaigns of Flanders, and on the banks of the Rhine and the Meuse, in 1794 and 1795, and kept at an immense cost of blood and treasure during 1796, they may, and it is most likely they will, lose again in 1797 or 1798. One battle shall wrest a sceptre out of the hand of a king or an emperor, which the next, by the ordinary fortune of war, shall restore: but it is no longer in the chances of battle to wrest from the grasp of Albion the trident of Neptune; such is the invincible ascendancy we have established on the main; and, while we rule the waves, the French colonies in either India must, consequently, if we please, be our’s.—An island, fortuitously, and through negligence on our part, like Guadaloupe, recaptured, answers no better end to France than to add to the heavy load already on her finances, and to bury garrison upon garrison, from epidemic diseases, so frequent under the tropical climates; nor can she look for any beneficial return, not a single vessel with the produce of Guadaloupe having, in two years, found its way safe home to Europe.’ P. 62.

We shall stop here to observe that the author seems to have forgotten that English lives, no less than French, have been subjected to the same dreadful sacrifice, and in a still greater proportion. In bartering English lives for rum, sugar, and cotton, who will say that we have been the gainers?—Our author continues—

‘ A nominal peace with France, which is the only one yet in view with the republic, would, in fact, be a short and jealous suspension of hostilities; and if such a peace were concluded, it would be insanity in Great Britain to disarm—she must still maintain, grievous as her burthens are, a heavy war expenditure.

‘ A maritime armistice (for no more would it in fact prove) is the most perilous position in which we can be placed—the only one
by

by which our enemies can be made able to face us again at sea. We are not now to speak of the impolicy, or the sagacity—the justice or injustice, of first undertaking the contest; but to reason, and to act on the existing state of affairs. It might be difficult to vindicate an interference with the internal policy of any other country, independent as ourselves, except, as in this case, when such internal policy is found to operate externally, to the end of an inordinate aggrandizement, destructive of our welfare, and big with the most alarming and incalculable mischiefs. The British ministers, who, if Louis XVI were still seated on the throne of France, had suffered him to invade and over-run Flanders and Brabant, and give laws on the Scheldt, without instantly declaring war; or with the *poltronerie* of an Acuda, should shrink from the conflict, and though the game were more losing than at present, agree to let their country pass under the yoke of the republic, ought certainly to be impeached; and would deserve a much worse sentence than the voyage to Botany-Bay.

‘While France makes the mere possibility of retaining the Low-countries, out-weigh in the scale of her policy the sure re-possession of her American islands, she gives an unequivocal proof of her intention to continue a belligerent and turbulent republic, abandoning, for the sake of so monstrous and vague a scheme of ambition, many of her most considerable cities, together with numberless blessings which nothing but a solid peace can insure.’ p. 68.

Urged by the interesting nature of the subject, and the able manner in which it is treated, we have already exceeded our usual limits in the review of the work before us. We therefore refer our readers to the concluding pages, for an interesting account of the atrocities of the Robespierrian reign, and a variety of characteristic anecdotes and facts which have not appeared in any other account of the French revolution.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

F I N A N C E.

A Second Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, on a National Bank. By Edward Tatham, D.D. Rector of Lincoln College, Oxford. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1797.

‘I AM a plain man, simple in my manner, and blunt in my expression.’ So speaks our author of himself; and this author is head of a learned seminary, whose employment it is to infuse solidity of reasoning, elegance of taste, and correctness of diction, into the rising generation. We presume, therefore, that he means

to

to guard his pupils, by the above quotation, from making his practice, and not his precepts, the basis of their conduct. If the author's title had not been affixed to the work, we could not certainly have adjudged such a publication to a patron of literature, but must have given it to some unsuccessful dabbler on the stock-exchange. The learned doctor is out of his element when he talks of *currency, circulation, and the circulation of currency*. He puts us in mind of the old song in the almanacs, from which, probably, he borrowed the idea in the following paragraph—

‘When a safe and honourable peace arrives currency will flow back into our ports with a full and rapid tide. But, in the interim, what is to support the necessary circulation? For the circulation of currency in the body politic to enable it to perform all the functions and operations of the vast national machine, is analogous to that of the blood in the human body, by which it is fed and enabled to perform all its functions with health and vigour. And how is this currency to be supplied to keep in motion the wheel of circulation, which keeps in motion the wheel of commerce, which feeds the national resources, which supply the national revenues, which furnish our supplies by sea and land, which alone can maintain the war, which alone can ensure us such a peace?’ P. 10.

The doctor's plan to increase the circulation of currency, and currency of circulation, is confined to three things—1st. To a national bank, which, besides a variety of other advantages, is to produce half a million clear profit to the nation, and to put ministers to the trouble only of signing between seven and eight hundred thousand notes.

‘But, would not this supersede the bank of England? It would be a superior to assist and to support, but not to supersede it, in the usual sense of that expression. Without trenching upon the chartered rights of that honourable company, it would, I own, and I glory to own it: it would break the monopoly of the bank of England. It would, I own, and I glory to own it: it would deliver the agriculture, the commerce, and the resources of England out of the power of the bank of England. It would, I own, and glory to own it: it would make the government of England independent upon the bank of England.’ P. 19.

If the doctor could make the bank independent of the government, he would receive the thanks of the nation and the proprietors.

The second thing to be done, is simply to gain two millions and a half by a national insurance; and the third thing (a very easy matter!) to call all the plate in the kingdom, above a certain weight, into the mint. By this mean we secure a sufficient quantity of gold and silver at one blow; we send people to the braziers, the potters, and glass shops, for new utensils; and then, by a swinging tax up-
ON

on the commodities of the latter, we may add a few millions more to the revenue. The colleges will not be obliged to our author for his scheme of plate-seizing, unless they are meant, by the one exception which he has reserved, in case this plan is adopted.

New Circulating Medium : being an Examination of the Solidity of Paper Currency, and its Effects on the Country at this Crisis. 8vo. 6d. Johnson. 1797.

A circulating medium ! pretty words upon an exchange, when gold is not to be seen. Money, or money's worth, used to be the saying in former times ; but now, if money is not to be had, we are to make some other circulating medium : that is, we are to give to paper an ideal value, and to have the benefit of a mine, without being at the trouble to extract the ore. This last idea is well exposed in the pamphlet before us ; and indeed the whole subject is clear to a man of common consideration. Whilst paper really represents property of any sort, there is, in many cases, a great advantage in transferring, by its means, property from one to another ; but from the moment that the connection between it and its representative is either destroyed or impaired, a great deal of inconvenience must result to society. We have seen the experiment tried on a large scale in France and America : and, according to the extent in which the same system is adopted in other nations, proportional will be the injury which they sustain.

' The creation of paper money for the exigencies of the public service, now becomes an evil of portentous and probable calculation. The bank seems to be identified with government ; if, disdaining the claims of its creditors, the gold in its coffers was at the service of government, surely its notes, less precious, will not be withholden.' P. 19.

The Iniquity of Banking : or, Bank Notes proved to be an Injury to the Public, and the real Cause of the present exorbitant Price of Provisions. 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1797.

The bankers have sustained a greater injury by the late stoppage, than they can possibly do from the speculations before us. Like every other branch of trade, banking may be abused ; but it is not right to argue, from the abuse of any thing, against its utility. The present difficulties do not seem to us to take their rise from iniquity in banking, but from the enormous gains which monied men are now in the habit of extorting from the public, by the support which they give to administration. The interest of money in the public funds is now between six and seven per cent ; consequently money is dearer than it used to be ; and yet provisions in general bear a higher value than they did ten years ago. We must therefore look to some other cause for this rise in provision, than the use of paper instead of cash, of which, till within a month or two,

Two, it was only the representative, and for which at any time cash was to be had. In banking, as in other trades, things left to themselves will find their proper level. At times a country banker may, by improper speculations, ruin a number of his neighbours; but this happens equally to the hop merchant, the grocer, or the West India merchant. If there is not property to answer notes, the receivers must suffer; and the late intimation given by the bankers throughout the kingdom, will promote the advice recommended at the close of this pamphlet, namely, that all gentlemen should keep as much money as possible in their own possession, instead of leaving it in the hands of their bankers.

P O L I T I C A L.

Measures recommended for the Support of Public Credit. By Captain James Burney. 4to. 1s. Robinsons. 1797.

Peace and the dismissal of ministry. On the confidence of the proprietors of land, there is a bold, but not less true, sentiment advanced—

‘The support of public credit is equally the interest of the proprietor of land as of the proprietor of stock. The landholder may not be aware how much his interest is implicated; and men are apt to say, “If there should be a bankruptcy, thank God, the land remains.” I say too, thank God, that the land remains; and that no extravagance of mankind, however they may injure the produce, can annihilate the land. If mankind could have had such communication with the inhabitants of the sun or of the moon, or with any other agents, visible or invisible, as by parting with territory from the face of the earth to have obtained the means of supplying their immediate purposes, long before our time there would not have been a foot of land for an Englishman, or, probably, for a man of any other country, to have been born upon.’ P. 13.

Plan of Preparation against Invasion: proposed by Captain James Burney, of his Majesty's Navy. Second Edition: in which a material Objection to the Plan, as before printed, is considered, and provided against. 4to. 6d. Robinsons. 1797.

Arm and exercise the people in their parishes.—The plan has been adopted, we believe, with success in Switzerland; but how far the people of this country may, with any due regard to their personal liberties, enroll themselves under Mr. Pitt's act, and subject themselves to the horrid despotism of martial law, is another question. The objection from the expense is of little consequence; another objection is well answered by the author—

‘Another objection which I have heard offered against such a plan is, that danger is to be apprehended from arming the people, on account of the number of the disaffected in the kingdom.

CRIT. REV. VOL. XX. June, 1797.

Q

Dislike

Dislike to an administration, dislike to a government, and dislike to the country itself, are three distinct things. Many may be, and in this country no doubt many there are, who may be charged with the first, but who, nevertheless, love both the form of government and their country. Miserable indeed must be the state of a country, where the people, in time of imminent danger, may not be trusted to defend themselves. The enquiry, if such a cause of apprehension really exists, or the occasion of such a cause, is too intricate to enter into, and fortunately may be shifted from the present purpose; for whatever suspicions there may be of disaffection, any danger to be apprehended from arming, is obviated by the people being divided and exercised by parishes; and where the parishioners are numerous, they may be exercised by portions, on different days, so that each shall be out one forenoon in the week. In such divisions, and where men do not choose for themselves who shall be stationed on each side of them, there cannot exist the smallest probability that any kind of combination would be attempted, or that, if attempted, it could have the smallest chance of success.' p. 8.

Regulations of Parochial Police, combined with the Military and Naval Armaments, to produce the Energy and Security of the whole Nation, roused from its general Torpor by the Prospects of the Disorder, Pillage, Crimes, and all the Desolation and Horror which, without such Regulations, may be the Consequences of the determined and repeated Efforts of France to invade Great Britain and Ireland. Submitted to the serious and immediate Consideration of the Legislatures, the Governments, and the People. 12mo. 1s. Owen. 1797.

The plan of parochial police recommended by this sensible and dispassionate writer is worthy of the consideration of the legislature, but, we apprehend, would be dangerous or useless, unless the legislature takes into its previous consideration other means to promote a spirit of unanimity among the people, than have hitherto been adopted. It cannot be denied that there is much disaffection in the nation: and although the grounds of that disaffection may at present be merely the sufferings incidental to an unprosperous war, and therefore removable in a great degree by a peace,—yet, if treated with contempt and branded as criminal, it certainly would not be very wise to put arms into the hands of men thus irritated. A want of real public spirit is the greatest calamity which this war has produced.

Plain Thoughts of a Plain Man, addressed to the Common Sense of the People of Great Britain: with a few Words, en passant, to the uncommon Sense of Mr. Erskine. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Bell. 1797.

'This is not one of your blunt downright honest men, who will speak his mind, let who will say nay to him. There is nothing of plain-

plainness in the pamphlet: and we see no reason for calling that an address to the plain sense of the people, which is nothing but a studied defence of administration in every part of its conduct. The old cant about the war shows the designs of this plain author very early in his pamphlet—

‘The present war, however, did not proceed, as so many wars have done, from the rival spirit of jealous nations, from the wanton ambition of kings, or the incapacity of ministers. It was not a war where the real interests of a people were to be sacrificed to the intrigues of a court, or the vain phantom of glory. It was a war of protection, not merely of one nation, but of almost all civilized Europe, against a people who had declared themselves the enemies of all civilization. It was a war of order against confusion; of civil government against anarchy; of freedom against despotism; of religion against infidelity; of civilized and rational beings, against a savage, a cannibal and insensate people.’ p. 4.

If this were true, what is to become of mankind, since the infidel party has been every-where victorious on the continent, and consequently civilisation, government, and religion, are to give way to anarchy, ferocity, and confusion?

But another part of the pamphlet will teach this plain gentleman how little qualified he is to discuss these political questions—

‘The suspension of paying cash at the bank in exchange for notes, is an event which, six months ago, I should have considered as the passing-bell of Old England; and yet it has been grounded on such circumstances, managed with such skill, and supplied with such remedies, as to encourage the nation instead of depressing it. For, as the quelling an insurrection always strengthens the arm of government; I know not whether, by a temporary suspension, credit itself may not be sometimes advanced.’ p. 65.

Now we leave our plain gentleman to compare together the two passages which we have quoted: and if he has been so much mistaken in his ideas on the stopping of the bank, he may, perhaps, on re-examining the first quotation, find equal reason to be dissatisfied with his crude notions of civilisation, religion, and government. We cannot submit this consideration to his plain sense: for the whole tenor of the work before us convinces us that the author must be far removed from the character of a plain downright man, and that he would be much offended with us, if we did not give him credit for considerable refinements above the vulgar, in style, language, sense, and argument.

Letter to a Minister of State, on the Connection between the Political System of the French Republic, and the System of its Revolution. Translated from the French of Mallet du Pan. 8vo. 1s. Longman. 1797.

The translator informs us that this letter has been imputed to

Mallet du Pan: and the result of his inquiries tends, in his opinion, to establish the justice of the imputation. Of what nature his inquiries may have been, we know not; but there is no internal evidence to prove it the production of a writer 'distinguished for the depth of his knowledge, the justness of his views, and the acuteness of his observations.' Indeed we have our doubts whether it be *bona fide* a translation. The turn of expression is far from French. It appears rather to come from an imitator of Burke (and Mallet du Pan has been called a second Burke); and its object is of the same tendency with the Letters of that gentleman on Regicide Peace. A short specimen shall suffice—

'The consequences of this stagnation of the maritime commerce of England upon her industry, her credit, her public revenue, and her internal repose, need only be indicated: the directory have calculated them all. And while, by this means, they relax the main spring of British power, they incessantly attack, by a multiplicity of agents, intrigues, and exertions, the fidelity of the people and the stability of their laws; the spirit of party has enlisted under their banners, and possibly without intending it; one step farther, and they will find themselves in alliance with those eighty thousand jacobins whose existence has been proclaimed by Mr. Burke, and who are nothing more than eighty thousand servants of the directory. Who knows even, whether plots more active, more personal, will not be directed against the king and the principal members of the government? Is there a crime of which the proposition, the examination, or the adoption, may not be daily found in the political ledger of the administrators of the republican revolution?

'In short, these clandestine manœuvres, this fatal infection, whose progress they stimulate, are the first parallels of a regular siege, which will be executed by the means of descents. It certainly never entered into the thoughts of the directory to conquer England as William the Norman did. Their object is to spread desolation and confusion over that island. They hope, and not without reason, to rally around their standards, when once fixed on British ground, all the banditti and incendiaries, all the rogues and disturbers of public peace, all ambitious men who are destitute of morals, and the indigent who are averse from the restraint of laws. Those Irish defenders, whom they justly call their brothers; those defenders, whom general Hoche, in his proclamation, paints in the same colours that Cato of Utica employed to paint the Roman senate, are nothing more than highwaymen, and thieves by profession. The men of property in England, more enlightened, more attached to their country, than men of a similar description in other parts of Europe, have hitherto opposed an impenetrable phalanx to the revolutionary spirit of proselytism; but can they look forward, without shuddering, to the time when a foreign army, commanded

by jacobins, and composed of the dregs of France, shall give the signal of revolt, and lend their support to the multitude who have no property?

‘To ruin the power of the house of Austria, and to subvert England, are the two grand objects of the directorial policy, at this moment. If they attain this object, even imperfectly, they think themselves sure of easily subduing the rest of Europe.’ p. 33.

Strictures on Peace. The Englishman and the Reformer, a Dialogue. By Mr. Dunn. 8vo. 6d. Richardson. 1796.

The Englishman doubts whether we can make a permanent peace with the French republic. The reformer contends for a new order of things, and permanent peace to all the world. They talk the matter well; but the Englishman is made to have the last word. On a subject so hackneyed, we may be excused from entering farther.

A Letter to the Tars of Old England. By Mr. Pratt. 8vo. 3d. Debrett. 1797.

A Letter to the British Soldiers. By Mr. Pratt. 8vo. 3d. Debrett. 1797.

In these publications we see little to commend beyond the author's good intentions. The former inculcates, no doubt, very properly, the importance of subordination; and exhorts, at a very seasonable moment, such of the sailors as may have been misled by designing traitors, to return to their duty. The latter very justly commends the steady loyalty of the soldiers at this period, and bestows a well-timed encomium on that *humanity*, for which we hope the British character is distinguished in every situation.

A Display of the Spirit and Designs of those who, under Pretext of a Reform, aim at the Subversion of the Constitution and Government of this Kingdom. With a Defence of Ecclesiastical Establishments. By the Rev. G. Bennett, Minister of the Gospel in Carlisle. 8vo. 3s. Boards. Richardson. 1796.

In the early ages of Christianity, there was nothing too absurd and wicked to be laid to its charge by its adversaries:—our author seems to have made the heathen writers his model,—and there is nothing too bad to be laid to the charge of modern reformers. What good purpose this can answer, we do not see; but besides the injustice to our countrymen, the writer is not probably aware that, by overcharging his picture, he destroys, in a great measure, the effect he intended to produce. At the close of his book, after describing the happiness of this country, he tells us that he ‘would not be understood to mean that things are exactly as they ought to be.’ Then let him learn to bear with those, who, seeing things in the same light with himself, may wish to assist in making them better.

We are apt to suspect that he has drawn all his positions from local circumstances : but even if the character of the reformers had been as he wishes to make it, we could not think it right to irritate, instead of appeasing ; and a very different kind of conduct might have been pursued with advantage both to himself and the public, if he had attended more carefully to his own rank, given in the bottom of the title-page, ' minister of the gospel.'

A Mirror for Princes, in a Letter to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. By Hampden. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Jordan. 1797.

Those who remember the Letter to the Prince*, published about two years ago, may be told that this Mirror is a continuation of the same expostulatory advice, written with some degree of elegance, though the style is often affectedly pompous, and with equal asperity. It is not for us to appreciate the justice of these attacks. The illustrious personage who is the object, will, we hope, have the magnanimity to despise them if groundless, and to remove the cause of odium, if conscious that it exists. The following sentiment we select for its general application to persons of high rank—

' It is in vain that we have endeavoured to enlarge our constructions of treason ; that we have fettered society with new shackles of authority ; that we have exerted our reason and our eloquence against the new philosophy, if our doctrines are contradicted by our example. There is a jacobinism more poisonous, more subtle, more deadly, than all that can be collected from the dreams of theorists, or the harangues of demagogues—it is the jacobinism of princely vices.' p. 60.

We add, may France be the last country that seals the truth of this remark with her blood !

Memoirs of Charette, Chief of the Royal and Christian Armies in the Interior of France : containing Anecdotes of his private Life, and Details of the War in La Vendée. By an Emigrant of Distinction. Translated from the French. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Jordan. 1797.

This is an affectionate tribute to the memory of Charette, but rather in the manner of the French *eloges*, than in that of a historical memoir. The object was certainly not unworthy of what is said of his zeal, valour, and humanity ; but we suspect that the partiality of the writer has given a colour to some circumstances more favourable than can be vindicated by proof. The author reports that Charette was promised by the convention to have the son of Louis XVI. given up to him, and that the death of the young prince induced him to renew hostilities.

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XIV. p. 334.

An Account of the Origin and Progress of the Society for the Promotion of Industry, in the Hundreds of Ongar and Harlow, and the Half hundred of Waltham, in the County of Essex. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1797.

The plan of this society is well deserving the consideration of the leading men in other parts of the country where it may be carried into execution. Similar institutions have been adopted at Shrewsbury, Lincolnshire, Rutlandshire, and at Glasgow. The object is to prevent indigence, by encouraging industry and good morals. Schools are established for different works, and premiums adjudged to those who have distinguished themselves by labour, or by bringing up their families in a decent manner. This society is yet in its infancy: but the subscriptions for its support are liberal, and the attention of the committees to the original principles of the institution, bids fair to render it a permanent good in the district where it is established.

D R A M A T I C.

A Cure for the Heart-Ache; a Comedy, in five Acts, as performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Thomas Morton, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Longman. 1797.

The heart-ache must be very slight which this comedy can cure. It depends for its effect, like most of the comedies of the present day, upon the life thrown into it by the exertions of the actors, particularly those whose talents lie chiefly in farce. The characters introduced are a nabob, lately got into parliament,—his daughter, proud, vain, and fashionable,—an old taylor, who has left off business with an immense fortune,—and his son, a spoiled youth, who runs himself into difficulties by aping the follies of his superiors, but having good dispositions, reforms, and marries the young woman he was engaged to, but had for a time forsaken—An old English baronet, with his son, and a young lady whose fortune had become the prey of the rapacity of Vortex, the nabob, are the serious characters of the play, if character can be applied at all to sketches drawn in so loose and inaccurate a manner. What little humour there is in the piece, is chiefly between the two taylors, father and son.

The Will: a Comedy, in five Acts. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury-Lane. By Frederick Reynolds. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1797.

This piece is very slight, and has little pretensions to nature or probability; the most prominent character in it is evidently written with a view to our best comic actress; but even with her fascinating powers, it has not, we believe, been received with great favour by the public.

R E L I G I O U S.

A Letter to William Wilberforce, Esq. on the Subject of his late Publication. By Gilbert Wakefield, B. A. late Fellow of Jesus-College, Cambridge. 8vo. 2s. Kearsley. 1797.

With the style of this author the public is well acquainted; and the charges which he brings against his antagonist, are of a very serious and a very important nature. We disapproved much of some party politics in the publication of Mr. Wilberforce; our author attacks him with great warmth, and we cannot say without appearance of reason, for the disagreement between his religious speculations and political conduct. He asks him to reconcile with his '*looking to Jesus*,' the adherence to Mr. Pitt, the encouraging of a bloody war, under the impious pretence of religion; the intolerance used towards the Dissenters. With these points we had nothing to do in our review of the work; but to questions so warmly put, we leave to Mr. Wilberforce to make his defence. The theological part of Mr. Wilberforce's system is treated with great contempt, as was naturally to be expected from one who falls as much short of the creed of the church of England, as the other goes beyond it; and as far as criminality is to be attached to an equal deviation from a given rule by excess or defect, they will stand equally criminal in the sight of the convocation. There are obscure allusions to a hypocritical companion of Mr. Wilberforce's, which few will comprehend, who is said to have fixed his creed; but whosoever he is, if his character corresponds to the description here given, we regret that he should have had such an opportunity for the exercise of his duplicity. We recommend sincerely to the admirers of Mr. Wilberforce the work before us, and to the evangelical teachers; for by seeing so forcible an attack, they may perhaps be made less intolerant, and, on a due comparison of the merits and failings of both authors, moderate their theological and political systems.

Sermons preached in the Parish Church of St. John, Manchester. By the Rev. J. Clowes, M. A. Rector of the said Church, and late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Vol. II. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons. 1796.

The subjects of these sermons are—The Fast Day—Lent—Easter day—Ascension-day—Jesus Christ, the Great Householder—Putting away Evil—Christian Perfection.

The style of this writer is almost as mystical, and his pages as full of spiritual interpretations, as the visions of Jacob Behmen, or the reveries of baron Swedenborg. We must beg to be excused the trouble of entering into a particular analysis; but if any of our readers should have a taste for this species of allegorical divinity, we can assure them that the following extract will be found a very faithful specimen of the volume before us—

' It

‘ It has been already shewn, in speaking of the vineyard planted by the great householder, that every regenerate man becomes a church or household of God in particular, answering in all respects to the church or household of God in general.

‘ Of consequence, as in the general vineyard there is a hedge of distinction and separation, so it is also in the particular vineyard; and every real member of the church, whether he is aware of it or not, must of necessity, as being an individual vineyard of the great householder, be encompassed by such a hedge.

‘ Possibly, beloved, you may never have before considered this subject, nor have thought about this spiritual hedge in your own minds. It is time then that you should now consider it, because, as being an eternal truth declared in the word of God, it must needs be infinitely interesting and instructive to you, as to your eternal concerns.

‘ Know then, and be for ever persuaded, that if you are vineyards of the Lord in particular, or in other words, if you have received his word of eternal life into your hearts and understandings, your minds are in this case encompassed with an eternal hedge of separation and distinction, whereby you are manifestly and everlastingly discriminated from those who are not of the vineyard.

‘ By virtue of this hedge, the mark of the eternal God is in your foreheads, and you are sealed to be his for eternity. You are the blessed sheep of his heavenly fold, and are for ever separated from those who are not his sheep. “They are not of the world,” saith the Lord of the vineyard of his true disciples, “even as I am not of the world.” Thus also he saith of you, “Ye are not of the world.” Ye are separated from it’s vanities and vices, from it’s delusive pleasures, and fleeting uncertainties, from the dazzling splendor of it’s enchanting glory, and the no less dangerous fear of it’s frowns and reproaches. And ye are born into another kingdom, ye belong to another family, ye are the members of another household, ye have higher ends of life, more blessed hopes and expectations, than this world can supply you with. As to your outward man, ye must indeed still for a time remain and act in the world, and for a time appear like those who are not of the vineyard; but as to your internal man, ye are chosen out of the world, ye are encompassed within the hedge of my vineyard, I know you to be my own, and will preserve you as a separate and distinct people.’ p. 65.

A Summary of the History, Doctrine, and Discipline, of Friends: written at the Desire of the Meeting for Sufferings, in London. 12mo. 6d. Phillips and Son. 1797.

This is a republication of a tract which gives a concise and impartial account of the doctrines and belief of the Quakers, whose principles are often misrepresented through the ignorance of those who will not give themselves the trouble to inquire into them. It would

would be a valuable service to the public, if *all sects* were to give a similar account of their peculiar tenets. Much confusion, and often personal mischief, arises from the want of accurate information of this kind.

An Appeal to Popular Prejudice, in Favour of the Jews: in a Letter, addressed to a Member of Parliament. 8vo. 1s. Johnson, 1796.

This letter is addressed to the member of parliament who stood forth, though unsuccessfully, an able advocate for the abolition of the slave trade: and he is thence supposed to be an advocate for 'human nature, and the privileges of mankind.' It is possible for a person to be deeply impressed with the distresses of one man or set of men, and callous to the calls of humanity from other quarters. It is possible to be zealous for the abolition of slavery in Africa, and to countenance measures which shall shed more Christian blood in a year than pagan blood in slave-ships in a century. A man may still farther be zealous for some species of liberty, be an advocate even for some degree of toleration, yet bigoted in other cases, so as to confine his Christian love solely to those persons who are within the pale of his peculiar sect. Such is the lot of men when they act from partial views, not on general principles. The great law of our religion is to do good to all men as far as it lies in our power. Jews, Turks, infidels, heretics, have all a claim on our benevolence. But how few Christians can digest this expansive system of benevolence! They carve out a little spot for themselves: and if they do not join in active endeavours to ruin persons of the descriptions above mentioned, they rarely will lend a hand to assist them in their distresses. Such a conduct is unworthy of a Christian. He who is zealous for the name of Christ, who really looks to Christ, must show it by imitating the peculiar tenderness of our Saviour's character, and a spirit of universal benevolence. The Jews are our brethren, our elder brethren, to whom the oracles of God were first confided. They are slighted, injured, oppressed, not only by the great and little vulgar in this nation, but by those men who affect to have a deeper insight into Christianity than their brethren. This is really a popular prejudice, and a detestable prejudice: we are happy that an attempt is made to stem it; and if any one who reads the scriptures, and has a regard for them, should join, in thought, word, or deed, in this base and vulgar prejudice, we recommend to him the arguments in the work before us, as a gentle remedy to such a disease.

Pious Memorials; exemplifying the Power of Religion upon the Mind; in the Lives, Sufferings, and Death, of many eminent Christians; Ancient and Modern. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1797.

A very imperfect collection. The chief of them are tinged with enthusiasm.

Three

Three Sermons inscribed to the Friends of Peace, Reason, and Revelation. By a Clergyman of the Church of England. 12mo. 2s. 6d. B. and J. White. 1796.

Of these Sermons, the first and last are, for the most part, of a practical nature; but the second 'is intended as an antidote to some passages in the writings of Thomas Paine.' We extract from it the following observations, which we think sensible and just —

'The French doctrines have teemed with so many atrocities, and such outrage, that I am sure I shall be pardoned the digression for a moment, while I enquire, what has nevertheless made them so palatable, and so prolific of proselytes. It is, brethren, the sentiments of philanthropy which they have purloined from the Christian system; and to disguise whence they have been stolen, they have renounced their profession of Christianity, and their faith in the cross. They have garbled from the gospel some of its loveliest sentiments, and its mild pacific doctrines, but they have not acted upon them. While they have been uttering the most amiable maxims of peace, and good will to men, which were first promulgated by the humble Jesus, and which would never have been even thought of without the light of revelation; while they have been vaunting these, they have been surpassing the most savage cruelties of the most savage people; they have been aspiring beyond the barbarous proscriptions and accumulated murders of Marius, and Sylla. They have made the mountains of carnage in the devastation of former ages vanish into imperceptible spots in the long perspective of their ferocious desolation. They have had the sentiments of the gospel in their mouths, while they have been cutting the throat of all religion. With the breath of the lamb, they have blasted the altar, and made the world look pale.

'Were some new Solon to appear upon the earth, and were he asked to compose a government for the nations of Europe; he would not so much consider what was the best possible government, as what was the government the people could best bear; he would study their manners, their opinions, their prejudices, their vices; he would form a system which should humour, and as it were insensibly smooth away the one, and by gentle gradations destroy the other.

'He would not imagine that a system of unmixed purity would suit the impurest natures; or that a constitution of speculative unmixed good was adapted to mortals, in whose very nature there is such a mixture of evil. He would judge that the violent passions which at times tempest the frame of man will be perpetually producing commotions and confusion, unless governments be established with a strong coercive energy; the energy not merely of fluctuating and transient, but of permanent hereditary power. The force must not only be strong, but impregnable to the sudden explosions of popular outrage; and invested not in ephemeral, but in durable

durable magistrates. There must be a steady vigour in the arm that hurls the thunder on the guilty head.

‘ Where there is power there should be permanence ; and in proportion to the inconstancy of the popular temper should be the permanence of the constituted powers. This will be evident from a proper attention to the frequent commotions and tempests in those popular governments where all hereditary power has been disclaimed, and there is a constant change in public trusts, and a constant succession of public functionaries. The frequent shifting of the magistrate in some measure vilifies the office ; keeps the public mind in a perpetual ferment ; and disposes it to frequent tumults, and destructive agitations.

‘ Where is power there should be authority ; or otherwise the power itself will lose half the force and vigour of its operations. Power and authority, though often confounded, are, in reality, very distinct things. Power is physical force ; acts by mechanical impulsion, and operates on the will by the fears : but authority is rather a moral force ; which rules at pleasure the voluntary powers by its fascinating sway over the affections and the heart.

‘ Where power is in a state of perpetual motion ; where it is constantly fluctuating here and there, from this to that, and that to this ; no time is left for respect to take root, or for authority to be established. The way to the heart is long and intricate : and is not the work of a day or a year. It must result from a long course of public services, a long experience of fidelity in office, and of love for the public welfare. This cannot be, in the motley rotations, the puppet-show of republicanism ; in which public caprice is continually pushing one on the stage, and driving another off ; where no magistrate is long stationary ; where chance does more than choice ; intrigue more than virtue ; where the mere exhibition of vigour and ability is the signal for distrust ; and where a vigilant and wise exertion of delegated power, which at all goes against the popular humour of the moment, excites against integrity the cries of treason, and the clamours of usurpation. The individual, driven from his post by the torrent of public fury, is either exiled from his friends and his home, or made to expiate his virtue in his blood.

‘ It might be uncharitable to say that one government fosters crimes more than another ; but, I think, it will be found that the representative system, of which so much has been vaunted by the assassins of the peace of nations, must by its very nature generate and foster a multitude of designing agitators, who are the worst of criminals, and the most destructive to public happiness and public virtue. They are fostered by the hopes of success, and the prospect of impunity ; by the incessant fermentation of evil humours which darken the atmosphere of republican politics ; by the fluctuations of power, the instability of magistrates, and the general relaxation and disjunction of the constituting parts of every commonwealth.

‘ But

‘ But hereditary government is exempt from these evils. The political atmosphere is more calm and pure. The stability of the magistrate corrects and controuls the proverbial instability of the people. Power long consolidated in the same families cannot be easily shaken; and respect long showed will not be readily transferred.’ p. 52.

Our readers will perceive, from this specimen, that the writer thinks with energy; and if he could occasionally lop off from his style some puerile ornaments, and florid redundancies, it would possess more animation, and approach much nearer than it now does to genuine elegance.

True Patriotism; or, Zeal for the Public Good, characterised in a Discourse, translated from the French of the great Saurin. Adapted to the present alarming Crisis, and to the late General Fast. Inscribed to Sir Richard Hill, Bart. 8vo. 1s. Griffiths. 1797.

The translator deprecates the severity of criticism, because the translation was made in haste; but he threatens the public with another sermon, if the present should defray the necessary expenses of publication. Whether this pays the expense or not, we recommend to him to defer his next publication till he shall have had sufficient time to do the original that justice which it deserves.

Ministers of the Gospel Witnesses for Christ. A Sermon preached before the Rev. John Carver, B. L. L. Archdeacon of Surrey, at his Visitation, held in the Parish Church of St. Saviour, Southwark, Oct. 5th, 1796. By W. Winkworth, Chaplain of St. Saviour's, Southwark; and Lecturer of St. Paul's, Shadwell. Published at the Request of the Archdeacon, and others of the Clergy then present. 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1796.

Some very useful observations, deserving the attention of the clergy. In the latter part the conduct of France is alluded to: but the misapprehensions which might have arisen from an expression in the text, are very properly corrected in the following note —

‘ The author wishes to be understood as not vindicating the mummies of popery; for he considers the folly of that profession, together with the profligacy of the priesthood, among the chief but remote causes of the revolution. But what he condemns, is the abrogation of every thing that bore the semblance of religion both good and bad; and the introduction of principles and rites totally repugnant to revelation and good order. The sacrifice of the mass might have been put down, without the exaltation of the Goddess of Reason; the dreams of purgatory, without considering death as an eternal sleep; the observance of a multiplicity of holidays, without the abolition of a commanded sabbath; the worship of the image of the Virgin Mary, without the elevation of a living idol, which they call the Goddess of Liberty. However, what has hap-
pened

pened in France, affords an important lesson to the clergy of all countries and communities, viz. to beware how they adopt spurious principles, and how they degrade their sacred function by dissolute manners. They are intended for public utility, and therefore ought to speak and act as the servants of God, for the welfare of mankind.' P. 29.

Consolatory Views of Christianity. A Sermon, preached in the Chapel in Princes Street, Westminster, on Sunday, Nov. 27, 1796, upon Occasion of the Death of Mrs. Elizabeth Kippis, who departed this Life on the 17th Day of the same Month, in the Seventy-second Year of her Age. By Thomas Jervis. Published by the Request of the Executors. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons. 1796.

These Views were presented to the audience from a text suggested by the deceased. They made, we doubt not, a proper impression; and this impression may be properly renewed by the friends of Mrs. Kippis in the closet. To others, perhaps, the discourse will not be so interesting.

A Sermon preached at the Assizes holden at Wisbech, before Edward Gwillim, Esq. Chief Justice of the Isle of Ely, the 28th July 1796. By James Nasmyth, M. A. Rector of Leverington. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

An assize sermon, which, having been once preached, had fully done its duty.

M E D I C A L.

An Historical and Practical Treatise on the Venereal Disease; dedicated to his Grace the Duke of Queensbury. Illustrated with some remarkable Cases; being the Result of fifteen Years extensive Practice in this Metropolis: together with Observations on a late Publication of Dr. Buchan's, on this Complaint: in which his Principles are candidly examined, and clearly refuted. In this Work is laid down a Mode of Prevention, which, if universally adopted, will, in a few Years, annihilate this inveterate Disease. By C. B. Godfrey, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Symonds. 1797.

There have been of late years published, on this and other medical subjects, pamphlets of so equivocal a description, that it has been difficult to suppose they were written for any better purpose than to introduce their authors into a more lucrative line of practice. In this view, the self-made physician may, perhaps not unjustly, think his book of as much consequence as many others that are sanctioned with names of more sterling reputation. Now if this be the case, practitioners of real character who descend to these arts, may thank themselves for the disgrace of being attacked by such scavengers in the art as Dr. Godfrey.

Attend, reader, to the following specimen of this *Practical Treatise on the Venereal Disease!*

‘ Order

' Order is the fence and defence of society. This order subverted, the fence is broken down, and the weapons of defence wrested from it by anarchy. Is this a state to acquire knowledge in? Is this an age to open the eyes of mankind to the despotism of power, — to the arts of priestcraft? An age that makes —

' REBELLION, — *virtuous.*

' LOYALTY, — *a crime.*

' RELIGION, — *a farce.*

' INDISCRIMINATE MASSACRE, — *the road to liberty and equality.*

' PROSCRIPTION, — *political precaution.*

' CONFISCATION, — *ways and means.*

' INVASION of neighbouring territories, accompanied with all the merciless depredations of Calmuck Tartars, — *a dissemination of the glorious blessings of liberty and equality.*

' AND

' FRATERNIZATION, or the fraternal embrace — *Squeezing to death!!!* P. 28.

Ye Brodums! — ye Solomons! — ye Meyersbachs, and Martin Vanbutchels! hide your diminished heads!

Descriptive Account of a New Method of treating Old Ulcers of the Legs. By Thomas Baynton, Surgeon, of Bristol. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons. 1797.

For the cure of old ulcerated legs, this writer proposes a new and effectual method. — If this proposal was really practicable, both the profession of surgery, and mankind in general, would be indebted to the inventor of it. — We are fearful that many cases will be found in the course of practice, which are too intimately connected with a general diseased frame to admit of relief from any mechanical or topical aid; and of this class is the method recommended in the present treatise. — We are very glad to congratulate the author on the reasonableness of his plan, and also to observe many physiological deductions in the course of his treatise, which display considerable acuteness of mind —

' About the commencement of the year 1792, after having experienced repeated disappointments in my endeavours to obtain permanent cures for some patients, with whom I had taken more than common pains, and for whom I had tried rest in a horizontal posture, exercise, precipitate, bandages, and every other remedy I was acquainted with, that authors had recommended, both alone, and conjoined with the most approved internal medicines: I determined on endeavouring to bring the edges of those ulcers, that might in future be placed under my care, nearer together, by means of slips of adhesive plaister; having frequently had occasion to observe, that the probability of an ulcer continuing sound depended much on the size of the cicatrix that remained after the cure appeared

ed to be accomplished: and well knowing that the natural shield of the part, the true skin, was a much more substantial support and defence, as well as a better covering, than that frail one, that is obtained by the assistance of art in the common methods of cure.

P. 7.

We are sensible of the efficacy of our author's method in many spreading ulcers, where the integument and the surrounding solids are in a relaxed and debilitated state; and we would advise the practical surgeon to read his treatise. — The useful part of his information might, however, have been condensed into a much smaller space; and his general observations, which are too much intermingled with the subject of the treatise, might have been omitted with no great disadvantage to the reader, and with some benefit to the author.

P O E T I C A L.

The Epistle of Horace to the Pisos, on the Art of Poetry, translated into English verse. By William Clubbe, L. L. B. Vicar of Brandeston, Suffolk. 4to. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1797.

Horace's Art of Poetry has been so often translated and imitated, that it is become almost as familiar to the English as to the classic scholar; and a new version of it cannot be supposed to attract much attention, except it acquired new salt and poignancy by a skilful adaptation to modern incidents and modern publications. This is not the case with the performance of Mr. Clubbe, which is merely a translation, as literal as the rules of verse will allow, and not distinguished either for elegance or spirit. In undertakings of this kind, it may be considered as sufficient if they serve as innocent amusements for the author. We shall just remark that *woe* and *too* are bad rhymes, and that the rhymes of the following triplet are worse—

‘ No matter,—be my office like the *hone*,
Which gives a sharpness, tho’ itself has *none*,
To edge and spirit other poets *on*. }

Fugitive Pieces. By Frances Greensted. 8vo. 2s. sewed. Symonds. 1796.

The following account, which is given in the Preface, of the occasion of this publication, while it precludes all criticism on our part, will no doubt raise in the minds of our readers a favourable prepossession towards the author, who has found means to improve and adorn her mind, without quitting the humble station assigned to her by providence; and from whose continuance for so long a time in one family, (an instance too rare at present) we may fairly infer that the duties of it were faithfully and honourably discharged. She has a right, therefore, to her motto—‘ I left no calling for this idle trade.’ She says—

“ Her

' Her situation in life is that of a servant, the duties of which station she has endeavoured to fulfil in the best manner a precarious state of health would permit. In this capacity she has lived more than twenty years in one family, now resident in Maidstone, where many of the following pieces were written at different times, without the least intention of their appearance in public.

' Some of these productions were shewn by a friend to a worthy and respectable clergyman, in the county of Wilts, who enquiring into the circumstances of the writer, and being informed, that she had an infirm and revered parent, upwards of eighty-two years of age, to whom she wished to render some assistance, instantly formed the benevolent design of publishing them by subscription; beginning the subscription himself, and soliciting the names and interest of his friends.' P. v.

L A W.

Reflections on the Advantages and Disadvantages attending Commissions of Bankruptcy; clearly pointing out when they may be beneficial or prejudicial to Creditors. And when they are beneficial, or hurtful to the unfortunate Bankrupt. A Work calculated for the Perusal and serious Attention of every Merchant, Tradesman, or Monied Man in the Kingdom. 8vo. 2s. Boag.

These reflections are calculated for the perusal of those persons to whom the title-page informs us they are particularly addressed. We regret that so much blame should be thrown on attornies; for we are persuaded that there are many honourable men in that profession; but it is certain also that the bankrupt laws do frequently give bad men an opportunity of turning them to their advantage. Yet the writer should have considered the extent of our trade; and then probably he might have found that the number of persons suffering under the abuse of the laws is not so great as he apprehends. A humane man will neither send a debtor to prison, nor sue out a commission of bankruptcy, unless he is driven to these terrible expedients by some very urgent necessity.

A Letter to William Garrow, Esq. on the Subject of his illiberal Behaviour to the Author, on the Trial of a Cause (Ford against Pedder, and others,) at the Lent Assizes, 1796, held at Kingston, in the County of Surrey. With an Apology for its Publication, to Sir Beaumont Hotham, Knt. one of the Barons of his Majesty's Exchequer. By Matthew Concanen, jun. 8vo. 6d. Jordan.

The detail of this dispute is not very interesting to the public: but to the profession it is important that no man should obtain such possession of the ear of the court, as to be able to injure the character of his inferiors with impunity. According to Mr. Concanen's statement, Mr. Garrow has very grossly injured him, and in a place where, although his character ought to appear in the most favourable light, he had no opportunity of vindicating himself. He, there-

fore, makes this appeal to the public: and if what he asserts be not disproved, humanity obliges us to wish that he may not make his appeal in vain.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Original Letters, &c. of Sir John Falstaff and his Friends; now first made Public by a Gentleman, a Descendant of Dame Quickly, from genuine Manuscripts which have been in the Possession of the Quickly Family near Four Hundred Years. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1796.

The humorous characters of Shakspeare have seldom been successfully imitated. Dr. Kenrick wrote a play called *Falstaff's Wedding*, in which he introduced the merry knight and his companions: but the peculiar quaintness of the character was lost by being sunk in modern wit. The author of the little work before us has, we think, been somewhat more successful, and must have given his days and nights to the study of the language of Falstaff, Dame Quickly, Slender, &c. His object, indeed, seems to be, to ridicule the late gross imposture of Norfolk-street: and certain it is, that, had these letters been introduced into the world, prepared in the manner of the Ireland MSS. the internal evidence would have spoken more loudly in their favour. But in whatever esteem they may be held as imitations, they argue no small portion of humour in the writer, who, we understand, is a young man, and this his first attempt. Our extract shall be confined to the Dedication.

‘ DEDICATION TO MASTER SAMUEL IRELAUNDE.

‘ *Right curteis and erudite syrre,*

‘ Knowen unto you it is whatte maner of menne there be in thys age, who deeme they doe mankynde mochel servyce, whan in theyre leud forte they make mocke at trew scyence, whych confysteth for the most parte, it sholde seeme, in the notices we have leste us of antiquitie. These be menne, who thinke scorne of payns takeing wights (like you or me) who from the mynes of remote tyme by dynte of toyle do bringe forth to view the pretious golde and the sylvere, (wherein it may not be farre from our discourse to remarke after whatte fashyone the mynes I here discusse doe differ from mynes physic or natural. In as moche as these latter doe renderre uppe theyre treasures yette being rude, and (as menne commonly faien) in the oarre; whereas those mynes intellectual, abounden in a sorte of metal, whyche cometh forth onmyngled wythe baser matter, and bearynge engraven onne it the marke and impresse, whyche to menne skylful in soche thynges, and candide, dothe notifie and assure its authenticitie. Peradventure, neede is I sholde here fetche instaunce from thatte trew myne and ryche vein of poesye dugge out in these last days by that younge Bristowyan, and whyche to all sound myndes dyd evidence a genuine byrthe. (Tho’ there be, who stycke notte to affyrme that

that the antique Rowley was noe oder thanne the stryplinge Chatterton, therein erring.) Bote this is a mayne digressyone from the matter in honde, tho' therein I stande notte alone, having notable exemplar in thatte famose wight of antiquitie, the Latine poet Vergilius (as Dan Chaucer 'clepeth him aryghte, whom the mincyng mouthe of after tymes mys-nameth Virgil.) Alsoe if neede were, I might here cite the exemplar of thatte grete Clerke himselfe, of whom his pupil Spenser wele affyrmeth thatte he is a "Well of Englishe ondefyled." After thys fashyone he speaketh. And now letten us come forthwith to the main subiecte of our discourse.

"Those rare gyftes of fortuna to menne, the lyghtyng upon lost recordes, and the inventyone * of MS. have in thys oure daye been farre outdonne by thatte rare discoverie by yourselfe made. Tell me, curteis syrre, was it by spade and by mattocke thatte you dyd fynde these goodlye thynges? Were those shrewde knaves carterers for you, who dyd fathome a grave for mistresse Ophelia? Those madde rogues who dyd poke agaynst the scull of a droll jesterre, thereby affordyng moche matter of mathematycalle sonne for master Laurence Sterne? Methinks you doe call to life agayne thatte swote swanne of Avonne, whose songes dyd sounde so pleasaunt in the eares of thatte peerlesse mayden quene and renowned victrix of Spayne, Elizabeth. Bote by the pryce sette upon your labours by the wyttes of the age, it sholde seeme lamentable matter of faete, howe moche poesye, and the pryme phanxies and conceipts of connyng menne are fallen into contempte in these the worldis last dayes. Natheles, master Irelaunde, letten us not be fruiteleslye caste downe—The tyme dothe faste approche, nay even now is close at honde, when the overcharged cloudes of scepticyfme muste incontinently vanish before convictione's ferener welkin, and Edmonde shall in vayne resume his laboures. Arreste thyne eyne—looke backe atte the goodlye figure of the auntient knighte—naye, looke notte cursorye, it is the impresse of a ryghte venerable picture traunsmitted downewardes throughe oure house forre soure hondredde yeaeres.—Seest thou notte the antique characteres ygraved onne the belte? Doubtlesse they doe reflecte a lighte collaterale uponne thy clerkish manuscripts; ande doubtlesse by a twofolde operatyone doe they con-firme unto the worlde by theyre evidence the truth of the Falstaffe Letteres. To conclude; the matter of faete (as soe it sholde seeme) muste be pleasaunt and gratefull untoe thee, master Irelaunde, to know thatte in the dayes of the Fifth Henry an ancessor of thyne was a maker of trunke hose, or as it is spoken of in these moderne tymes, a maker of pantaloones.

"Trustyng thatte posteritie shall yet remunerate us for oure un-

* Inventyone, or discoverie, from the Latine verbe, invenio.

dertakynge (which are simylare) wythe a lyke portyone of laud and praise, I doe commende thee unto thye beste fortunes.

‘Thy fellow-labourer in the mynes of antiquitie, and
moste humble servante to commande,

This is followed by a Preface, giving an account how the letters came into the hands of the present possessor: and it is at least as *consistent* as that of *master Irelaunde*, and may be believed with less injury to the pocket, and without the necessity of an *Apology*!

An Attempt to describe Hafod, and the neighbouring Scenes about the Bridge over the Funack, commonly called the Devil's Bridge, in the County of Cardigan, &c. By George Cumberland. Small 8vo. 2s. Egerton. 1796.

The known good taste of the author of these remarks is alone sufficient to stamp their value; we shall therefore content ourselves with extracting the following introductory particulars—

‘Hafod, usually pronounced Havod,’ (says Mr. Cumberland) ‘is a place in itself so pre eminently beautiful, that it highly merits a particular description. It stands surrounded with so many noble scenes, diversified with elegance as well as with grandeur; the country on the approach to it is so very wild and uncommon, and the place itself is now so embellished by art, that it will be difficult, I believe, to point out a spot that can be put in competition with it, considered either as the object of the painter's eye, the poet's mind, or as a desirable residence for those who, admirers of the beautiful wildness of nature, love also to inhale the pure air of aspiring mountains, and enjoy that *santa pace* (as the Italians expressively term it) which arises from solitudes made social by a family-circle.

‘Hafod, to all these charms, unites inducements which, though not uncommon in England, have there, at such a distance from the capital, a peculiar grace. It has a capacious stone-mansion, executed in the pleasing, because appropriate stile of Gothic architecture; situated on the side of a chosen, sheltered dingle, embowered with trees, which rise from a lawn of the gentlest declivity, that shelves in graceful hollows to the stream below.

‘From the portico it commands a woody, narrow, winding vale; the undulating forms of whose ascending, shaggy sides, are richly clothed with various foliage, broken with silvery water-falls, and crowned with climbing sheep-walks, reaching to the clouds.

‘Neither are the luxuries of life absent; for, on the margin of the Ystwyth, where it flows broadest through this delicious vale, we see hot-houses, and a conservatory; beneath the rocks a bath; amid the recesses of the woods a flower garden; and within the building, whose decorations, though rich, are pure and simple, we find a mass of rare and valuable literature, whose pages here seem doubly precious, where meditation finds scope to range unmolested.

‘In

‘In a word, so many are the delights afforded by the scenery of this place and its vicinity, to a mind imbued with any taste, that the impression on mine was encreased after an interval of ten years from the first visit, employed chiefly in travelling among the Alps, the Apennines, the Sabine Hills, the Tyrollese; along the shores of the Adriatic, over the Glaciers of Switzerland, and up the Rhine; where, though in search of beauty, I never, I feel, saw any thing so fine, never so many pictures concentered in one spot; so that, warmed by the renewal of my acquaintance with them, I am irresistibly urged to attempt a description of the hitherto almost virgin-haunts of these obscure mountains.’ P. 1.

After a most animated description of the picturesque scenery of Hafod, Mr. Cumberland concludes in the following manner—

‘Thus,’ (says he) ‘I have brought the reader to the end of my detail, and to a point where I may well be dispensed with; for it is not only beyond my abilities to enter into a full relation of the scenes about this place, but quite unnecessary, for all are now before him, expanded under the admiring and astonished eye—and never eye, I will venture to affirm, beheld these scenes without astonishment: I shall therefore only say, at parting, from the divine poet I have so often quoted—that these hills like

Paradise,

Now nearer crowns with her enclosures green,
As with a rural mound, the champion head,
Of a steep wilderness; whose hairy sides,
With thicket overgrown, grotesque and wild,
Access denied; and overhead upgrew
Insuperable height of loftiest shade;
A sylvan scene; and, as the ranks ascend
Shade above shade, a woody theatre.

Thus lovely seemed

That landscape, and of pure, now purer air,
Meets the approach, and to the heart inspires
Vernal delight and joy, able to drive
All sadness but despair.’ P. 49.

Elements of French Grammar, as taught at Vernon Hall. 12mo.
2s. Bound. Vernor and Hood. 1797.

This elementary treatise is simple and perspicuous. The rules, though concise, are comprehensive; and the examples are accurate, with some exceptions. Among the erroneous passages we may reckon that which follows: *le juge des peuples*. The grammarian, (who appears, from internal evidence, to be a native of this island) is here speaking of a king, who, he says, ought to act not only as the defender of his country, but also as the judge of his people. Only one nation being alluded to, the singular aggregate ought to have been used—*le juge du peuple*, or *de son peuple*; for the phrase,

le juge des peuples, would imply *the judge of nations*. The proposed change will require the alteration of other parts of the sentence: *pour les rendre bons, sages, et heureux*, should be, *pour le rendre bon, sage, et heureux*.

A Defence of the English System of Book-Keeping: or, Collier against Collier, Gofnell against Gofnell, the Analytical Reviewers against the Analytical Reviewers, Mill against Mill, and Observations on a Merchant's Letter. By E. T. Jones. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1797.

Mr. Jones is exceedingly angry with every man who has written against his mode of book-keeping; not considering that he who writes a book lays himself open to the animadversions of others. Of all authors, indeed, he has the least reason to complain: his book was brought forward under the auspices of several leading men in trade, and met with a greater subscription than any ever published in this country. It is now in the hands of upwards of five thousand persons, all interested to adopt his system, if preferable to that in common use. Time, therefore, will stamp its decision on the merits of the work. The persons who recommended the system, doubtless have adopted it in their counting-houses; and among the subscribers many must have made a trial of its merits. Mr. Jones, therefore, need not be in such a passion. Let him stay a few years, and let him then produce the list of merchants who have used his system. Such a list will do him much greater credit than his present arguments.

One part of his work we cannot pass over in silence,—his attack upon the Analytical Reviewers, because the treatment he has received from them (whether just or unjust, it is not our business to determine) leads him to inveigh against the whole body of reviewers. Indeed, he has taken fair advantage of the prospectus of those reviewers, who have, we hope and trust, spoken of their brethren in terms deserving of the highest censure. The reviewers of books in this country are a large body of men; and in this body is at present, and has always been, the greater part of the most distinguished characters in the literary world. That they hire themselves out to booksellers, is just as true as that the lawyer hires himself out to his client, the physician to his patient, the landlord to his tenant, for a fee. Without doubt they are paid, and ought to be paid, for labour which is highly useful to the community; but the writer of this article trusts, that, in speaking for himself, he is also vindicating all his brethren, that he never felt himself dependent upon any bookseller whatsoever,—that he knew the price of his labour, and reviewed every article according to the best of his abilities, without any regard to the opinion of bookseller, printer, or author.

So far from being then of the opinion of Mr. Jones, or the Analytical Reviewers, on the writers of articles in reviews, we conceive them to be entitled to their reward, in the same manner as every other man who by his talents procures his sustenance. Mr. Jones has been highly rewarded for his labours. He has received more
for

for his light composition than will fall to the share of the whole body of reviewers in the course of three or four years. Let him be contented with his reward, and beware of attacking others who labour more, whose labour requires greater talents, and whose reward is less. Besides, it is not in the power of a single review to destroy his work; and reviewers, it is well known, do not act in concert. Let him compare together what is said by different reviewers; and he will seldom find them to concur in the praise of any work which does not afterwards receive the same stamp of applause from all who are capable of determining its merits. The reviewers themselves are subject in their turns to similar censure with this author: and the writer of this article recommends to him, as well as to other authors, his own practice of comparing together the judgment of reviewers, by which he is enabled frequently to correct many errors that would otherwise have escaped him.

But if we needed any argument in favour of reviewers, we should find a sufficient one in the work before us. It is a review of the opinions of several persons on an interesting subject, and labours under the misfortune that the reviewer, being too much interested in favour of his own system, wants that impartiality which should be the ground of every review. Hence his work is replete with a great deal of abuse; and a subject which ought to be the farthest possible from the heat of controversy, seems to have inflamed the author's mind as much as any one in politics or religion.

Book-keeping reformed: or the Method by Double Entry, so simplified, elucidated, and improved, as to render the Practice easy, expeditious, and accurate. By J. H. Wicks. 4to. 8s. Boards. Longman. 1797.

The very great success which Mr. Jones has met with in the publication of his work, has naturally excited the attention of many persons engaged in similar pursuits: and the result of that attention has been the withdrawing of some portion of that confidence which had been placed in his assertions. It must have struck every one that it was too much to assert that there was an impossibility, in his method, of passing an error; and it will become him to refute the following remark in the work before us—

‘ This circuitous mode of posting cannot be admitted to be more *simple* or *concise* than the ancient system, and the following defects shew his ledger does not contain what a merchant's book ought to contain; for, if desirous of seeing a statement of the different articles of the trade, the prime cost of articles imported, expences upon them for duty, freight, &c. &c. — the manner they have been in part or wholly disposed of — such a statement is not to be found. How then can the selling price be properly fixed — the profits checked — or a just estimate be made at any time, of the value of the remaining property ?

‘ With respect to the *impossibility* of passing an error, we will trace the purchase and sale of the *first article only*, entered on his day-

book, and we shall find that a want of attention to the above particulars has led Mr. Jones into errors; and will admit the application of a sentence to his system which he adduced to the disadvantage of the Italian form, "that it wears the appearance of correctness, and is at the same time full of errors and false entries, made on purpose to deceive." He states, "Bought of John Antonio 40 pipes of port, at 25*l.* per pipe;" by tracing the day-book through we cannot find he pays more expences upon them for freight, duty, insurance, &c. than 750*l.* but which has not, as it ought, been carried to the first price, making the cost of the 40 pipes 1750*l.* or 43*l.* 15*s.* per pipe: when Mr. Jones takes his stock, and balances the books, he values the wine left on hand at 44*l.* per pipe, though the actual cost is but 43*l.* 15*s.*! So much for Mr. Jones's rectitude, deception, impossibility of error, &c. &c.' p. 6.

Mr. Wicks's chief improvement is in the trial balance: and from this specimen of his mode of keeping books, we have no doubt that the young men under his instructions will be well qualified to keep books, and to apply, as occasion may require, these improvements, which are to be found not only in books, but in various counting-houses. The art of keeping books is not so difficult as many imagine; but it cannot be too much cultivated in the seminaries for commercial education.

TO THE CRITICAL REVIEWERS.

GENTLEMEN,

As I cannot suppose you would intentionally publish an erroneous account of any work, I am inclined to think it is only necessary to point out a mistake to ensure its correction. This your criticisms, in your Review for May, on a volume intitled '*A Dictionary of Surgery, &c.*' demand. It is not your observations on '*Furunculus*,' nor on the division of '*Hydrophobia*,' into two species, to which I allude: they are points of very little intrinsic importance: but the very serious charge of holding out delusive language in the treatment of '*Hydrophobia*,' by speaking 'complaisantly' of certain medicines, and not recommending the use of the knife, being unfounded, it is necessary I should refute it.

On every subject in the '*Dictionary of Surgery*,' &c. I have stated the different opinions and modes of treatment by different persons, without presuming to comment on them; this, which I did from diffidence, you have termed, I will venture to say, improperly, delusive language. I am well convinced from experience that the knife only is to be depended on in that dreadful disorder, the '*Hydrophobia*;' and in the concluding paragraph of that article it is recommended in terms as strong as any I have used through the work. After enumerating the various methods which have been suggested, you will find these words—'Probably, the best mode that can be adopted, is, immediately on the bite being given, to suck the wound well for some little time, then cut the bitten part away,' &c. &c. I trust you will see the propriety of correcting this oversight on your part, in your Review for June.

I remain, Gentlemen,

Yours respectfully,
BENJAMIN LARA.

Threadneedle-street,
June 15, 1797.

We cannot concede the point to Mr. Lara. The extract quoted in his letter is, itself, a sufficient justification of our strictures on the article *hydrophobia*, in so far as it fails to insist on excision of the bitten part, as the only means of the patient's security.

